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ABSTRACT

This volume is one of the products of the "knowledge development" effort implemented under the mandate of the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act (YEDPA) of 1977. Under YEDPA's discretionary authority there have been a number of efforts to better measure the impact of services that facilitate the transition of youth from school to work. The research report provides the analytical foundation for these demonstrations, reviewing and synthesizing from a policy perspective the literature on school-to-work transition activities. The document focuses on six areas: (1) career information, guidance, and job-seeking skills; (2) academic credit for work experience; (3) youth participation; (4) private sector involvment; (5) special efforts for high risk youth; and (6) school-to-work transition efforts for the handicapped. The volume contains literature reviews and syntheses around key policy issues for each of these focus areas. Additionally, it includes the results of special hearings conducted by Youthwork (a nonprofit intermediary jointly funded by the Departments of Labor and Education) on the needs of high risk youth and the handicapped. Annotated bibliographies, as well as many abstracts, are included in the volume. (KC)

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YOUTH KNOWLEDGE DEVELOPMENT REPORT

RESEARCH ON YOUTH EMPLOYMENT AND EMPLOYABILITY DEVELOPMENT

School-to-Work Transition: Reviews and Syntheses of the Literature

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YOUTH KNOWLEDGE DEVELOPMENT REPORT 2.15

SCHOOL-TO-WORK TRANSITION: REVIEWS AND SYNTHESES OF THE LITERATURE

YOUTHWORK, INC.

May 1980

OVERVIEW

A large share of both graduates and dropouts leave school without adequate preparation for the world of work. Reading and computational deficits are a lifelong handicap. But many employers claim they could utilize youth with limited academic skills if they at least knew rudimentary work mores and requirements. There are a cluster of basic work skills which most youth acquire through exposure to family and friends, as well as through periods of work experience part-time and during the summer. These skills include the ability to make career and job choices with some intelligence, to know where and how to look and apply for work, to be motivated and independent enough to enter the labor market and to understand the expectations in regular jobs.

Research has documented unequivocably that youth with more knowledge of careers, with self-assurance and motivation, as well as realistic understanding of the demands of the workplace are more likely to hold jobs as teenagers as well as to have subsequent labor market success as young adults. Research has documented that the gaps in these basic world of work skills for minorities and the poor begin even before high school and have a cumulative, interactive impact by limiting the chances of successful work experience during the teen years. Evaluations have documented the dearth of opportunities in-school and out to develop such basic skills. Counseling and placement activities for students are college oriented and spread too thinly; likewise, cooperative education tends to serve the most advantaged youth who have already set their career goals.

There are a cluster of services which can be offered to teenagers, and the school is the logical setting because almost all youth are in school at least to age 16. These "school-to-work" transition activities include job-search assistance which teaches methods of job hunting, motivational and participatory activities to build self-esteem and confidence, occupational information and efforts to overcome sex-stereotyping, career exploration through classroom instruction, worksite visits, lectures, and rotational work assignments, placement assistance, work-related counseling and followup. These services, which go under many different names and have many different components, might be distinguished from in-school work experience which can also be transitional in intent and may be combined with transition services.

There are a number of potential delivery agents for such activities. Within the schools, guidance counselors, cooperative and vocational education personnel could all offer such services if they had adequate resources. Private employers in a few isolated cases have "adopted" schools; labor unions and apprenticeship systems can do the same. The Employment Service at one time had placement personnel that worked at least part-time in a majority of the high schools in the country. Community and neighborhood groups and voluntary youth serving agencies are another alternative.

Finally, there are a number of different potential target groups for scarce resources. Emphasis might be placed on young women to help them overcome sex-stereotyping or on the disadvantaged and minorities to overcome the effects of discrimination and poverty. Alternatively, all youth in need of services might be reached by spreading resources more thinly. A fundamental issue is the continuity and intensity of services.

The Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977 mandated the expansion of school-to-work transition services, making all youth eligible, and requiring that every work experience in school be combined with counseling, occupational information, placement assistance and efforts to overcome sex-stereotyping. The Act required that 22 percent of funds under Youth Employment and Training Programs be set aside for assistance to in-school youth. However, YEDPA also mandated knowledge development activities to help better determine the imapct of such services, the effectiveness of alternative delivery agents and the appropriate target groups.

Under YEDPA's discretationary authority there have been a number of efforts to better measure the impact of transition services. There are multi-site experiments with job search assistance and vocational exploration. Statewide private nonprofit organizations have been established to offer an outside approach to the delivery of services. There have been tests of saturation of transition services in a controlled and experimental high school. Apprenticeship in-school programs have been initiated in multiple sites. School-to-work transition programs have been supported throughout the country under a competitively funded demonstation project involving CETA/school cooperation. Finally, structured experiements have been undertaken in multiple sites utilizing community and neighborhood groups and the Employment Service as delivery agents. Under all these demonstrations, careful research designs have been implemented to measure the impacts of services.

This research report provides the analytical foundation for these demonstrations, reviewing and synthesising from a policy perspective the literature on school-to-work transition activities. This is a product of Youthwork, Incorporated, a nonprofit intermediary jointly funded by the Departments of Labor and Education, as well as a consortium of foundations, to serve as the research agent for the Exemplary In-School Grant Program which provides support for 90 local in-school projects with innovative features and demonstrated cooperation between local education agencies and prime sponsors. The grants have six focus areas: (1) career information, guidance and job-seeking skills; (2) academic credit for work experience; (3) youth participation; (4) private sector involvement; (5) special efforts for high risk youth; and (6) school-to-work transition efforts for the handicapped. This volume contains literature reviews and synthesis around key policy issues for each of these focus areas. Additionally, it includes the results of special hearings conducted by Youthwork on the needs of high risk youth and the handicapped.

This volume is one of the products of the "knowledge development" effort implementing under the mandate of the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977. The knowledge development effort consists of hundreds of separate research, evaluation and demonstration activities which will result in literally thousands of written products. The activities have been structured from the outset so that each is self-standing but also interrelated with a host of other activities. The framework is presented in A Knowledge Development Plan for the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977, A Knowledge Development Plan for the Youth Initiatives Fiscal 1979 and Completing the Youth Agenda: A Plan for Knowledge Development, Dissemination and Application for Fiscal 1980.

Information is available or will be coming available from the various knowledge development activities to help resolve an almost limitless array of issues, but answers to policy questions will usually require integration and synthesis from a number of separate products, which, in turn, will depend on knowledge and availability of these products. A major shortcoming of past research, evaluation and demonstration activity has been the failure to organize and disseminate the products adequately to assure the full exploitation of the findings. The magnitude and structure of the youth knowledge development effort puts a premium on organization and dissemination of findings.

As part of its knowledge development mandate, the Office of Youth Programs of the Department of Labor will organize, publish and disseminate the written products of all major research, evaluation and demonstration activities supported directly by or mounted in conjunction with the knowledge development effort. Some of the same products may also be published and disseminated through other channels, but they will be included in the structured series of Youth Knowledge Development Reports in order to facilitate access and integration.

The Youth Knowledge Development Reports, of which this is one, are divided into twelve broad categories:

1. Knowledge Development Framework: The products in this category are concerned with the structure of knowledge development activities, and the assessment methodologies which are employed, validation of measurement instruments, the translation of knowledge into policy, and the strategy for disseminating findings.

2. Research on Youth Employment and Employability Development: The products in this category represent analyses of existing data, presenation of findings from new data sources, special studies of dimensions on youth labor market problems and policy analyses.

3. Program Evaluations: The products in this category include impact, process and benefit-cost evaluations of youth programs including the Summer Youth Employment Program, Job Corps, the Young Adult Conservation Corps, Youth Employment and Training Programs, Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Projects and the Targeted Jobs Tax Credit.

4. Service and Participant Mix: The evaluations and demonstrations summarized in this category concern the matching of different types of youth with different service combinations. This involves experiments with work vs. work plus remediation vs. straight remediation as treatment options. It also includes attempts to mix disadvantaged and more affluent participants, as well as youth with older workers.

5. Education and Training Approaches: The products in this category present the findings of structured experiements to test the impact and effectiveness of various education and vocational training approaches including specific education methodologies for the disadvantaged, alternative education approaches and advanced career training.

6. Pre-Employment and Transition Services: The products in this category present the findings of structured experiments to test the impact and effectiveness of school-to-work transition activities, vocational exploration, job-search assistance and other efforts to better prepare youth for labor market success.

7. Youth Work Experience: The products in this category address the organization of work activities, their output, productive roles for youth and the impacts of various employment approaches.

8. Implementation Issues: This category includes cross-cutting analyses of the practical lessons concerning "how-to-do-it." Issues such as learning curves, replication processes and programmatic "batting averages" will be addressed under this category, as well as the comparative advantages of alternative delivery agents.

9. Design and Organizational Alternatives: The products in this category represent assessments of demonstrations of alternative program and delivery arrangements such as consolidation, year-round preparation for summer programming, the use of incentives and multi-year tracking of individuals.

10. Special Needs Groups: The products in this category present findings on the special problems of and adaptations needed for significant segments including minorities, young mothers, troubled youth, Indochinese refugees and the handicapped.

11. Innovative Approaches: The products in this category present the findings of those activities designed to explore new approaches. The subjects covered include the Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects, private sector initiatives, the national youth service experiement, and energy initiatives in weatherization, low-head hydroelectric dam restoration, windpower and the like.

12. Institutional Linkages: The products in this category will include studies of institutional arrangements and linkages as well as assessments of deomonstration activities to encourage such linkages with education, volunteer groups, drug abuse agencies and the like.

In each of these knowledge development categories, there will be a range of discrete demonstration, research and evaluation activities, focused on different policy, program and analytical issues. For instance, all experimental demonstration projects have both process and impact evaluations, frequently undertaken by different evaluation agents. Findings will be published as they become available so that there will usually be a series of reports as evidence accumulates. To organize these products, each publication is classified in one of the twelve broad knowledge development categories, described in terms of the more specific issue, activity or cluster of activities to which it is addressed, with an identifier of the product and what it represents relative to other products in the demonstration. Hence, the multiple products under a knowledge development activity are closely interrelated and the activities in each broad cluster have significant interconnections.

This volume supplements the reviews in Between Two Worlds--Youth Transition from School to Work and Youth Employment and Training--What Works Best for Whom, also in the "research on youth employment and employability development" category. There are a number of related studies of YEDPA school-to-work transition demonstrations in the pre-employment and transition services category. Of particular importance are School-to-Work Transition Services--The Exemplary In-School Project Demonstration, Findings of the Youth Career Development Program and Process Studies of the Youth Career Development Program.

ROBERT TAGGART
Administrator
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REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE:

CAREER INFORMATION, GUIDANCE AND JOB SEEKING SKILLS

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REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE:

CAREER INFORMATION, GUIDANCE AND JOB SEEKING SKILLS

INTRODUCTION

This paper involved completion of the activities below.

- Conducting an ERIC search and other related computer-based searches of literature in the appropriate focus area.
- A review of appropriate literature and research material available at the Department of Labor. This review shall be an extensive assessment of the material relevant to the focus area.
- Compilation of a comprehensive bibliography of all collected sources and citations;
- The literature will be examined and the most useful material selected for inclusion in and the construction of an annotated bibliography;
- There will be an interpretive narrative and analysis coalescing what is known within the focus area about each policy issue around which the literature review shall be focused.;
- The final step shall be the identification of next steps or research strategies which Youthwork should engage in to answer the knowledge development gaps which current research and projects noted earlier leave unanswered.

The literature review examined information on the current state of the art in the focus area of career information, guidance and job-seeking skills with regard to the following list of policy issues.

1. What forms of collaboration among employment, training, educational (including colleges and universities), and rehabilitation institutions (including CBO's) are the most effective and the most successful in facilitating the school-to-work transition sequence? Also, what forms of collaboration and what structural arrangements best serve the young people in terms of linking occupational and educational information services, systems, and resources, and in helping them find placements in private sector, unsubsidized jobs after program completion?
2. What do we know about the relative effect and value of private sector vs. public sector programmatic experience in terms of skills acquired, utility and accuracy of career information, later (after program) job placement, career and educational success and overall (long-term) employability? To what extent

does what type of programmatic experience change/alter the impact as a result of the age of the participants?

3. What do we know about the career information material in terms of providing information about job seeking skills and about jobs which participants can obtain after leaving school? This information should be clarified in terms of time, intent, and who produced it. What kinds of information do participants need for certain types of decision making, e.g., jobs, career paths, voting.

4. What do we know about how career information literature and material has changed in tone, intent, and direction in the past several years? Be especially sensitive to changes in sex stereotyping, thrust of the material, projected outcomes, and adaptation of the material for youth who do not speak English. (The intent of this question is to provide a sense of changes in this literature area, the direction of the changes, and what it has meant and could mean in operational terms.

5. What do we know about how Career Information Projects are generally characterized in terms of their transmittal of information to participants? How were the services delivered to the students? What were the networks that were used, and were they either new networks or existing networks; how will the delivery networks address and help overcome problems of sex stereotyping? Are new networks established for purposes of reaching hard-to-reach young people?

6. What do we know about who the individuals are who provide career information material to the project participants? How are they prepared and trained for the task? What are their levels of training and education? How can school counselors, teachers, and other school counseling personnel be better informed about the functioning of the world of work? How long have the personnel been involved in providing career information? How effectively can peer counselors provide the information, compared with trained "professionals?" Are there different mechanisms for providing this information beyond peer counselors and professional counselors, such as business people and others in the community? This question incorporates Career Information items #3 and #5 from the 1978 Youthwork Application Guidelines.

7. What do we know concerning the extent to which the CETA system or private industry were at all involved helping develop, maintain, and operate career information networks and data bases? (The intent of this question is to determine who was involved in the development, creation, and dissemination of the career information material.)

8. What do we know about how young people can be more effectively motivated and assisted in using occupational information for career planning.

9. What do we know about the availability of career information for special populations, e.g., Hispanics, those with low reading levels, for rural areas?

10. What do we know about the most important and salient sources of information, e.g., peers, parents, employers, teachers, etc., which young people use when they make job, career, and personal decisions?

Briefly summarized here are the procedures followed in carrying out terms of the contract. While the work assignment specifies an ERIC search. None of the three focus area concepts are listed as descriptors in the ERIC thesaurus. The accompanying table identifies those descriptors most closely related to the focus area and the number of documents in the data base through 1977. A perusal of abstracts for the 11 descriptors indicated that the "Youth Employment" category related more closely to the ten policy issues than any of the other individual categories. In actual practice, a given document may be classified with respect to multiple descriptors.

The primary strategy for this project was to conduct a computer search of the ERIC data base for "Youth Employment" and then to supplement the search with a subjective, manual search of the other ten descriptors as needs dictated. A computer search for the period 1966 through September 1979 yielded 450 documents. In reviewing these 450 documents it was discovered that the more relevant publications were those completed in the last six years. As a result, publications in ERIC and CIJE prior to January 1974 were disregarded. Appendix A provides listing by title of the 267 publications processed in ERIC and CIJE since January 1974. Appendix B contains abstracts from Appendix A that were deemed to be most related to the policy issues.

Data were also collected by several other means. A letter was sent to the National Commission for Manpower Policy requesting copies of relevant publications. Twenty-eight papers and reports were received from this request. In early December, the conractor spent two days in Washington collecting publications at the Department of Labor. About 30 or so publications and papers were obtained at the Office of Youth Programs and at the ETA Inquiries Unit. Meetings with Evelyn Ganzglass in ETA and Russell Flanders at the NOICC resulted in a number of other valuable suggestions and publications. Another valuable source of information proved to be the author's own personal library.

This paper is organized according to major concepts. Chapter One is a background discussion of the history and legislation in those professional fields most related to the policy issues. In Chapter Two policy issues one and two are addressed. Chapter Three is primarily related to issues number five, six, eight and ten. Chapter Four is designed to illustrate the potential of the NOICC as it relates to CETA (issue number seven). Chapter Five includes a discussion of issues number three, four, nine and to some extent, number five. The last chapter summarizes the paper and makes recommendations for next steps.

TABLE 1

RELATED DESCRIPTORS

Descriptor	Beginning Date	CIJE	RIE
Career Education	October 1971	1,286	3,237
Career Choice	July 1966	661	808
Career Planning	July 1966	739	1,179
Job Skills	July 1966	373	1,406
Job Application	July 1966	74	135
Job Search Methods	December 1976	0	4
Occupational Information	July 1966	573	1,736
Occupational Guidance	July 1966	575	1,595
Occupational Choice	July 1966	497	576
Vocational Counseling	July 1966	730	986
Youth Employment	July 1966	75	218

Source: Thesauras of ERIC Descriptors, 7th Edition. New York: Macmillian Information, 1977.

CHAPTER ONE

THE NATURE AND EVOLUTION OF WORK-EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Several decades ago, interest in work as the object of professional study was almost the exclusive domain of vocational psychologists. As the 1980's begin, however, work has become the focus of a considerable amount of public discussion, research, legislation, and popular and professional writing. So, too, has the number and type of individuals interested in work expanded to include a wide variety of social and behavioral scientists; educators; business, labor, and industry leaders; bureaucrats; legislators; and laypersons.[1]

Generally speaking, there are four professional fields that have work-education relationships as a major concern: (a) vocational education, (b) career guidance and counseling, (c) career education, and (d) employment and training. Each of these fields have separate histories, professional affiliations, and bodies of literature.[2]

Youth employment issues as they are addressed in this paper are primarily a function of the latter category. However, a state of the art review for the topics of career information, guidance and job seeking skills cannot be achieved without examining the literature in all four areas. The following brief summaries of vocational education, career guidance and counseling, and career education are designed to provide the reader with a better perspective of the nature and historical development of each professional field. (The employment and training field is not discussed under the assumption that the reader is already familiar with it.) In particular, the discussion is directed toward demonstrating how vocational education, career guidance and counseling, and career education have evolved to the point where their proprietary interests are now quite similar (employment and training included).

The Reorientation of Vocational Education

Notwithstanding the claim that "Vocational education is as old as man himself"[3] the first nationwide system of public school vocational education was created by the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 (P.L. 64-347). This Act provided a grant in perpetuity to the states of approximately $7.2 million annually for vocational instruction in three service areas: agriculture, trade and industrial education, and home economics. A series of amendments in 1929, 1934, 1936, and 1946 extended and augmented Smith-Hughes slightly, but the basic nature of vocational education changed little up through the early 1960's.

The 1946 amendments (George-Barden Act) authorized for the first time the use of federal funds for vocational guidance. It was expected that such funds would enable the states to:

1. Provide for supervision of vocational guidance.
2. Train vocational counselors.
3. Maintain a program of vocational counseling for the secondary and adult level.
4. Produce and publish occupational information for vocational counselors and teachers.

By 1960, however, less than half the states (21) reported use of federal funds for vocational guidance. In the same year, less than one percent (.84) of the federal money for vocational education was used for guidance.[4]

Passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 (P.L. 88-210) resulted in sweeping changes in vocational education, leading one author to characterize the Act as ". . . no less than a reorientation of the traditional emphasis from filling the requirements of the labor market to meeting the needs of people."[5] Among the provisions and funding arrangements of VEA 1963 was the requirement for states to use three percent of their respective allotments of federal funds for ancillary services. These included (but were not limited to) administration, teacher education, and vocational guidance and counseling.

The Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 (P.L. 90-576) moved vocational education even farther in the direction of providing more comprehensive education for work programs and services. Embodied in the Act was a recognition that "Orientation and assistance in vocational choice may often be more valid determinants of employment success, and therefore more profitable uses of educational funds, than specific skill training."[6]

Vocational guidance and counseling was encouraged in several sections including the provision for entering into cooperative arrangements with the system of state public employment offices to make available occupational information regarding "reasonable prospects of employment in the community and elsewhere." A new Part D. Exemplary Programs and Projects was designed to stimulate new ways to create a bridge between school and earning a living for young people. Projects later funded under this part became precursors of career education.

The most recent vocational education legislation (Title 11, Education Amendments of 1976, P.L. 94-482) finds concern for vocational guidance and counseling reflected throughout. A specific mandate is expressed in Sec. 134 Vocational Guidance and Counseling in which not less than 20 per centum of the funds available to the States under Section 130(a) be used to support programs for vocational development* guidance and counseling programs and services. These include the initiation, implementation, and improvement of high quality vocational guidance and counseling programs and activities; vocational counseling for children, youth and adults; provision of educational and job placement services; overcoming sex stereotyping and sex discrimination; vocational and education counseling for youth offenders and adults in correctional institutions; vocational guidance and exploration programs at the local level.

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*See in the next section how concern for vocational development came about.

From Vocational Guidance to Career Guidance

Frank Parsons, director of the first vocational guidance center in the United States, provided the framework for the first theory of occupational choice. In 1909, he proposed a method for vocational guidance which he outlined in a three-phase approach: study and understanding of self, study of the requirements of occupations, and decisionmaking about the relationship among the facts obtained.[7] The effect of Parson's "trait-and-factor" theory was the institutionalization of guidance practices that emphasized individual testing, dispensing occupational information, and matching individual traits with an "appropriate" occupation.

According to Herr and Cramer,[8] for most of its first fifty years vocational guidance has concerned itself with predicting occupational choice or occupational success from an individual's test scores prior to entry into the labor market. Its major reference point has been the requirements of the occupational structure rather than individual preferences or values.

At mid-century, alternative theories of vocational behavior began to emerge. The work of Ginzberg _et al_.[9] and of Super[10] marked a shift away from the Parsonian model of "matching men and jobs" and its static notion of "occupational choice", to a model that focused on "vocational development" (late career development) as a process rather than an event. As Super explained:

> Vocational development is conceived as one aspect of individual development . . . Work, like social life and intellectual activity, is one specific medium through which the total personality can manifest itself. Like other aspects of development, vocational development may be conceived of as beginning early in life, and as proceeding along a curve until late in life . . .[11]

Central to Super's theory of vocational development are the processes of _formation_, _translation_ into occupational terms, and _implementation_ of a self concept. The use of career models in vocational guidance has slowly begun to elevate the concern for self-understanding to the same level of importance as occupational information. "In this view, the primary objectives of vocational guidance are seen as developing the individual's skills to make a free and informed choice of career and appropriately preparing for that career, rather than for the needs of the labor market."[12]

The mid-to-late 1960s was a significant period for the career guidance and counseling field in which numerous texts and collections of readings were published relating to vocational guidance and career development.[13] These were very influential in communicating career development concepts and methods to practitioners, counselor educators and graduate students. These same publications were also very influential in bringing about the reorientation of vocational education discussed in the previous section. A number of university-based counselor education programs like those at The Pennsylvania State University, the University of Missouri, and the University of Minnesota became centers for providing leadership in career guidance and counseling, developing cooperation with vocational education, and conceptualizing the forerunners of career education.

Current philosophical assumptions about career guidance and about the knowledge and competencies that counselors should possess are reflected in a 1976 position paper adopted by The Association of Counselor Education and Supervision. This paper advocates a significant development role for counselors involved in both group and individual activities designed to promote knowledge, attitudes and skills which individuals need for self-definition and career planning.[14] These competencies are:

1. Career and human development theory and research, and the skills necessary to translate this knowledge into developmental career guidance and career education programs.
2. Career information resources, and the necessary skills to assist teachers, administrators, community agency personnel, paraprofessionals, and peers to integrate this type of information into the teaching-counseling process.
3. Career assessment strategies, and the skills necessary to assist individuals to use these data in the decision-making process.
4. Individual and group counseling practices, and the skills necessary to assist individuals in career planning using both approaches.

5. Career decision making processes, and the skills necessary to implement programs designed to facilitate career decision-making for clientele in educational and community agency settings.

6. Job placement services, and the skills necessary to assist their clientele to seek, acquire, and maintain employment.

7. The unique career development needs of special clientele groups (women, minorities, handicapped, disadvantaged, adults, etc.), and the skills necessary to assist them in their development.

8. Sexism and racism, and the necessary skills to reduce institutional discrimination in order to broaden the career opportunities available for all persons.

9. The roles that life style and leisure play in career development, and the skills necessary to assist clientele to select and prepare for occupations which coincide with various preferences.

10. Consultation strategies and the skills necessary to assist others (teachers, parents, peers, etc.) to deliver indirect career guidance services.

11. Synthesizing strategies, and the skills necessary to assist individuals to understand the interrelatedness of their career decisions and life roles.

12. Program development and curricular infusion strategies, and the skills necessary to design and implement career awareness, self-development, career exploration, and job placement programs with educational and community agency settings.

13. Organizational development and change processes, and the skills necessary to facilitate change in educators' attitudes toward career education.

14. Program evaluation techniques, and the skills necessary to acquire evidence of the effectiveness of career guidance and career education programming.

15. Educational trends and state and federal legislation which may influence the development and implementation of career guidance programs.

The Career Education Movement

On January 23, 1971, then Commissioner of Education Sidney P. Marland delivered a speech before the Annual Convention of the National Association of

Secondary School Principals entitled "Career Education Now".[16] This speech launched a national movement, the likes of which has seldom been seen in the history of education.[17]

Though Marland is often called the "Father of Career Education" (a characterization he denies), credit for fashioning the concept is due more to the efforts of people like Gysbers and Herr.[18] In 1969, Herr delivered a paper in which he described how career development could serve as a common thread to unify the entire educational system at all levels.[19] This led Herr to later describe career education as the ". . . institutionalization of career development and the marrying of it with occupational education".[20]

Marland's role in career education was not limited to speech-making. Utilizing the "discretionary" authority provided the Commission under federal legislation, the U.S. Office of Education supported a wide variety of career education pilot projects with funds obtained from Part C and Part D of Public Law 90-576 (VEA 1968).[21] During the early 1970s a total of 236 projects were supported, amounting to approximately $65 million, in some of the earliest attempts to bring model programs of career education into operation in local school districts. Independent of these projects, the National Institute of Education was actively involved in research and development of four different delivery systems for career education: (a) School-Based Model 1, (b) Employer-Based Model 11 (later renamed Experienced-Based Career Education), (c) Home/Community-Based Model 111, and (d) Rural/Residential-Based Model IV. Countless other projects were initiated during this period by state and local education agencies.

Two significant events occurred in 1974 that resulted in greater autonomy for career education.[22] One was passage of the Education Amendments of 1974, Section 406 (P.L. 93-380) which provided for the first time separate leadership responsibility and legislative authority for career education. Beginning in Fiscal Year 1975, projects were funded under this legislation in six different categories:

1. Activities designed to effect incremental improvements in K-12 career education programs.

2. Activities designed to demonstrate the most effective methods and techniques in career education in such settings as the senior high school, the community college, adult and community education agencies, and institutions of higher education.
3. Activities designed to demonstrate the most effective methods and techniques in career education for such special segments of the population as handicapped, gifted and talented, minority and low income youth, and to reduce sex stereotyping in career choices.
4. Activities designed to demonstrate the most effective methods and techniques for the training and retraining of persons for conducting career education programs.
5. Activities designed to communicate career education philosophy, methods, program activities, and evaluation results to career education practitioners and to the general public.
6. Projects for development of State plans for implementation of career education in the local educational agencies of the States, under the provision of Subpart C of 45 CFR Part 160d.[23]

These activities were significant in moving career education beyond the research and development phase to demonstrating its efficacy and to planning for comprehensive statewide implementation.

A second important event in 1974 was the adoption by the U.S. Office of Education of an "official" policy paper that defined career education as ". . . the totality of experiences through which one learns about and prepares to engage in work as part of her or his way of living."[24] Even though dozens of definitions had been proposed for career education prior to 1974, this definition represented a concensus that helped to unite many disparate constituencies, and to clarify the relationship between career education and vocational education.

The enactment of the Career Education Incentive Act (P.L. 95-207) on December 13, 1977 gave further credence to career education's importance, and laid the foundation for nationwide implementation. This act provided a five-year, $325 million authorization to assist states and local educational agencies ". . . in making education as preparation for work and as a means of relating work values to other life roles and choices (such as family life), a major goal of all who teach and all who learn . . ."[25] Payments to local educational agencies may be used for:

1. Instilling career education concepts and approaches in the classroom.
2. Developing and implementing comprehensive career guidance, counseling, placement, and follow-up services.
3. Developing and implementing collaborative relationships with organizations representing the handicapped, minority groups and women.
4. Developing and implementing work experiences for students whose primary purpose is career exploration.
5. Training of local career education coordinators.
6. Providing inservice education for educational personnel.
7. Conducting institutes for members of boards of local educational agencies.
8. Purchasing instructional materials and supplies.
9. Establishing and operating community career education councils.
10. Establishing and operating career education resource centers.
11. Adapting, reviewing, and revising local plans.
12. Conducting needs assessments and evaluations.

Even though Congress has failed to appropriate full-funding under the legislation (about 40 percent of authorization), thousands of local education agencies have nonetheless been aided in initiating new or augmenting existing career education programs.

Implications for this Review

Brief as it may be, this discussion of major historical developments and federal legislation in the fields of vocational education, career guidance and counseling, and career education provides a background and point of departure from which to review the literature on career information, guidance and job seeking skills. Two points should be kept in mind: (a) research and practice in the various work-education fields are evolving at such a rate that the state of the art becomes rapidly antiquated, and (b) a short project of the duration of this contract can only hope to capture a sample (hopefully a representative one) of a much more comprehensive body of literature.

CHAPTER TWO

FACILITATING THE SCHOOL-TO-WORK TRANSITION

After nearly two decades of concerted efforts to improve the various means by which individuals make the transition from school to work, there has accumulated an extraordinarily large body of literature on theory, research and practice. This chapter will examine a cross-section of such literature in an effort to determine what forms of institutional collaboration and what structural arrangements are the more effective. Emphasis will be given to secondary literature soruces and literature summaries and evaluations.

Lessons from Experience

A number of excellent books and monographs addressing the subject of school-to-work transitions are available, e.g., From School to Work: Improving the Transition[26], Rite of Passage: The Crisis of Youth's Transition from School to Work[27], The Boundless Resource: A Prospectus for an Education-Work Policy[28], and The Lingering Crisis of Youth Unemployment[29]. Mangum in a monograph entitled Career Education and the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act[30] analyzes these four publications and more than 30 others in an effort to explain ". . . what has seemed to work reasonably well, and what not so well in school-related manpower program efforts on behalf of disadvantaged youth . . ." Following in abbreviated form are his conclusions.

A. Relatively Ineffective Program Strategies

1. Attempts to Return Dropouts to Traditional Schools

> Few youth drop out of school due to economic necessity or to lack of parental support; instead, most drop out simply because they do not get along well in school. They are not likely to return until they can foresee more successful and satisfying experiences.

2. Restricting Enrollments Only to the Most Severely Disadvantaged

The problems faced by near-poor youth are virtually indistinguishable from those facing economic disadvantage, and experience shows that program effectiveness improves when programs are not too highly segregated or participants too indelibly labelled.

3. Programs of Complete Remediation and Comprehensive Services

Individualized, comprehensive treatment programs seldom work well, and often do not appear to work at all. The national experience with Job Corps demonstrates the uncertain effectivess of complete remediation.

4. Programs Consisting Only of In-School and Summer Work Experience

Work experience by itself has no appreciable effect on the employability of enrollees. Positive results were achieved only when work experience was directly relevant to a post-program job.

5. The Work Incentive Program (WIN)

It would be a mistake to assume that WIN as currently organized can reasonably be expected to prepare any large portion of the youngest clientele to compete successfully in the labor market.

6. Program of Intensive Counseling

Counseling in manpower programs has generally produced little success in solving problems not directly related to work; contingency management and behavior modification systems using rewards and other tokens have been flashy in the short run, but generally ineffective over a sustained period of time.

7. Vocational Education or Other Strategies That Isolate Youth From Life Experiences

Vocational skill training has positive effects on employability, but only in limited circumstances. While skill training is an important tool, it seldom solves difficult problems by itself.

8. Programs Seeking to Refine School-to-Work Transition Mechanisms

Sponsors of transition services often imbue them with magical powers they simply do not have. By themselves, transition services cannot offset deficiencies in educational systems or differences in young peoples' abilities, characteristics, and backgrounds.

9. Rural Programs Consisting of Work Experience and Visitation to Urban Areas

None of the DOL rural youth literature reveals a single instance of a program that worked successfully, either in terms of empirical evidence or subjective reasoning.

B. Programs and Services of Demonstrated Effectiveness

1. Increasing the Levels of Education Attainment

Practically every study available on this subject indicates that success in the workplace is directly and inseparably related to the level of education attained. Race combined with low educational attainment is associated with the most severe labor market maladjustment.

2. Work Experience Relevant to Vocational Objectives

Only when work experience was directly related to post-program jobs were positive effects noted. The clear implication is that rather than becoming to an end unto itself, work experience should provide exposure to different kinds of work to help the individual decide what he or she wants to do. Very few positive results have been shown by work experience programs anywhere in working with the most severely maladjusted.

3. Increasing the Extent of Labor Market Information and World-of-Work Understanding

The more a young person knows about the world-of-work, the higher his or her wages and occupational status are likely to be. Programs of labor market information, aimed at the disproportionately large segments of black youth with meager labor market knowledge, may be a useful instrument for equalizing opportunity.

4. Programs Offering Career Education and Labor Market Exposure

Impressive national results appear to be accumulating in the area of programs designed for the specific purpose of providing labor market exposure and career education through a series of temporary assignments to a variety of work situations.

5. Vocational Training and Counseling

The available body of information fails to produce evidence that vocational training and counseling in and of themselves produce long-term benefits in the market place. However, there is not complete agreement on the subject, and several authorities note that these activities, when conducted in combination with other youth services, are often associated with positive outcomes.

6. Program Strategies to Improve Individuals' Coping Skills

From the entire body of available information, it appears that the single most important variable in determining success in work and life adjustment is the acquisition of behavioral traits that enable youth to interact, grow, and function within formal or informal social groups--such things as developing and executing plans, working with others, controlling impulses, processing and interpreting information, communicating, problem solving, and working with an authority structure. These are often called "coping skills."

7. Experiencing Rewards for Accomplishments

Throughout the youth literature, there runs a consistent thread of evidence that successful outcomes are often associated with programs that allow young persons to experience the intangible but very important rewards of being a part of something larger and of contributing to its successful accomplishment.

8. Public Service Employment

The experience of Emergency Employment Act funded "transitional" employment in the early 1970s proved that young people in public service jobs made significant gains in the labor market, especially when skill development was included as part of the job experience. The major limitation of PSE as an effective program strategy, however, is that available resources cannot reach more than a small percentage of the unemployed population.

Effective Forms of Collaboration and Other Structural Arrangements

The analysis above by Mangum provides evidence of general program characteristics that seem to be effective in facilitating school-to-work transitions. This section contains descriptions of specific programs and services. Tables 2 and 3 provide insight into forms of collaboration and structural linkages that have proven effective in actual operation. The programs cited in Table 3 are particularly unique in that they received funding from multiple sources. In all, twenty-five different sources were mentioned with CETA (12 times) and vocational education (9 times) being the more common. Insight into other programs and additional forms of collaboration may be gained by reading Job Strategies for Urban Youth: Sixteen Pilot Programs for Action[31], "Community Resources for Career Education"[32], Youth Program Models and Innovations[33], Education and Training Programs for Youth: What Works Best for Whom?[34], Education for Employment: Knowledge for Action[35], and Bridging the Gap: A Study of Education-to-Work Linkages[36].

TABLE 2

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS THAT WORK

	Project	Clientele	Description
1.	Alternate Learning Project, Providence, Rhode Island	high school students	A community-based alternative to traditional school, with emphasis on basic skills, career education, performance-based graudation, and parent and student participation.
2.	Career Intern Program, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	High school dropouts and potential dropouts	A three phase program involving a mixture of academic and carrer education (phase one), individualized instruction and on-site exploration (phase two), and placement into college, OJT, advanced skill training or employment (phase three). Counseling support is provided throughout.
3.	Environmental Career-Oriented Learning, Seattle, Washington	K-12 students, teachers and staff	The infusion of ecological concepts, career information, and future understanding into the learning world of children by utilizing a format that requires no major change in the existing learning climate.
4.	ECOS Training Institute, Yorktown Heights, New York	teams of K-12 teachers, administrators, and community representatives	A program offering workshops designed to assist diverse local school districts to infuse environmental or career education components into their curriculum.

Table 2 (cont.)

	Project	Clientele	Description
5.	Experience-Based Career Education, Appalachia Education Laboratory, Charleston, West Virginia	high school students	Learning about and exploring career options through experience in a community setting.
6.	Experience-Based Career Education, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, Portland, Oregon	Secondary or post-secondary students (grades 7-14)	A full-time alternative operated as a separate program for the traditional school (even off-campus), or can be operated as an in-school option to supplement or extend traditional instruction.
7.	Experience-Based Career Education, Far West Laboratory, San Francisco, California	high school students, adaptable to special target groups	An alternative program using the entire community as a school emphasizing direct experience in a wide variety of real-life settings.
8.	Functional Literacy, Carmel, California	grades 6-12 and adult	An educational program of task-related/functional-literacy training for regular and remedial classes, vocational education, adult education, and adult basic education.
9.	Lincoln County Exemplary Project in Career Education, Hamlin, West Virginia	K-12 students and dropouts	A program for improving a rural area school program with expanded career educational services by utilizing comprehensive career-orientation and exemplary activities.

Table 2 (cont.)

	Project	Clientele	Description
10.	Needs and Objectives for Migrant Advancement and Development, Lawrence, Michigan	K-12 students, young adults, and total families	A School Year Tutorial Program, a Summer Education Program, and a Family Unit Program designed to meet the special needs of migrant students through individualized instruction, including career awareness and prevocational programs.
11.	Occupational and Career development, Marietta, Georgia	K-12 students	A sequential career education program focusing on awareness, exploration, and preparation.
12.	Occupational Versatility, Tempe, Arizona	middle and junior high school students	An exploratory, pre-vocational experience for all students in a general, multiple-activity industrial arts laboratory.
13.	Readings, Relevancy and Reinforcement, San Jose, California	grades 7-9	A motivational basic-skill program that interrelates the reading and mathematics curricula through gaming/simulation activities involving career awareness.
14.	Experience-Based Career Education, Research for Better Schools, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	grade 9-12 students, teachers, school/community groups	A program of inquiry and planning that integrates school and community experiences to help students develop life goals, career choices, and post-secondary plans.

in the various work-education fields are evolving at such a rate that the state of the art becomes rapidly antiquated, and (b) a short project of the duration of this contract can only hope to capture a sample (hopefully a representative one) of a much more comprehensive body of literature.

TABLE 3

TWENTY-TWO MULTI-FUNDED WORK AND SERVICE EDUCATION PROJECTS

	Project	Clientele	Description
1.	Center for Public Affairs Service Learning, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana	undergraduates and graduate college students	Develop paid internship positions with federal, State and local public agencies, and some private enterprises.
2.	Executive High School Internships, New York City, New York	high school students in grades 11 and 12	Internship programs for high school students in 30 school districts in 18 states.
3.	Environmental Intern Program, Lincoln, Massachusetts	high school and college students between the ages of 19 and 29	Places students as interns in public and private agencies concerned with environmental protection.
4.	Tuscon Skills Center, Tuscon, Arizona	disadvantaged and unemployed adults and youth	Provides institutional and on-the-job training, counseling, and supportive services to its enrollees.
5.	Work Experience for Juvenile Offenders, Poplar Bluffs, Missouri	juvenile offenders referred by the courts	A program to provide vocational evaluation, career information, counseling and work experience.
6.	Genesco Migrant Center, State University College at Genesco, New York	migrant farm worker families	Direct and indirect basic and vocational education provided along with a variety of other health and supportive services.
7.	Yakima Valley Opportunities Industrial Council, Yakima, Washington	a mixed community of whites, blacks, Native Americans and Indo-Chinese refugees	Provides the gamut of employment development services, including pre-vocational training, occupational training, work education, and a variety of supportive services.

Table 3 (cont.)

	Project	Clientele	Description
8.	Work Education for the Handicapped, Los Angeles, California	mentally retarded people of all ages	Comprehensive services provided to the handicapped, including work education in the fields of gardening and horticulture.
9.	Oklahoma Skills Center, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma	disadvantaged and unemployed individuals	Provides skill training and other manpower services, including work education.
10.	Adult Migrant Job Training Program, Sarasota, Florida	migrant farm-worker families	Vocational training to help migrants find permanent employment. Comprehensive support services (e.g., transportation, child care, legal aid, health services) also provided.
11.	Offender Aid and Restoration Program, Charlottesville, Virginia	adult city and county jail inmates	Recruits and trains citizen volunteers to work on a one-to-one basis with inmates performing all kinds of personal and employment counseling. Attempts are also made to place ex-inmates in training positions, work experience programs, and jobs.
12.	Newark Manpower Training Skill Center Newark, New Jersey	disadvantaged unemployed and underemployed citizens	Offers a full range of employment and and development services--outreach, recruitment, counseling, supportive services, remedial education, and occupational training (including pre-vocational training).

Table 3 (cont.)

	Project	Clientele	Description
13.	Georgia Governor's Intern Program, Atlanta, Georgia	undergraduate and graduate college students	A program that combines internships in the executive branch of State government, state and local agencies, the legislature, and public and private non-profit organizations with academic growth.
14.	Co-op Work Experience, Denver, Colorado	junior high school potential dropouts	Mixing work experience with regular academic work and providing a training-related course as part of the students' curricula.
15.	Project 70001, Wilmington, Delaware	high school dropouts	A national organization promoted by DECA which provides technical assistance and other services to local 70001 programs. Full-time work experience in distributive education is provided along with GED instruction.
16.	The Institute for Public Affairs, Portland, Oregon	elementary, high school and college teachers	Marshal community resources to support and promote career education provide internships for teachers of career education.
17.	Detroit Urban Corps, Detroit, Michigan	high school and college students	Provides off-campus work-study internships in city agencies and non-profit corporations.
18.	Training for the Blind,	visually impaired unemployed adults	Classroom vocational training for transcribing machine operators and a full range of support services.

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Logical analysis of exemplary programs of the type contained in Tables 2 and 3 begins to illuminate elements that contribute effectively to facilitating career development[37]. Borrowing also from summaries by Mangum[38] and the Committee for Economic Development[39], the following list of 12 characteristics serves to encompass the more frequently cited structural arrangements that best serve young people.

1. Basic Education. Central to preparing workers for meaningful employment is a significant improvement in functional literacy for both youths and adults.

2. Dropout prevention. Keeping youth in school and re-enrollment of recent dropouts must be stressed. Alternative school programs such as the Career Intern Program and Experience-Based Career Education should be employed in lieu of traditional school practices.

3. Integrating classroom and workplace. The most promising and potentially far-reaching means of bringing schools, youths, and the world of work closer together is through increasing the ways in which the teenage years can become a time for gaining experience through both schooling and working.

4. Combining career and academic education. The introduction of a sequential career education program beginning at the elementary school level holds promise of helping to prevent later adjustment problems.

5. Career information, counseling, and placement. One way to improve the link between school and work is to help overcome the glaring inadequacies in guidance, counseling, and placement services now available to young poeple.

6. Vocational education. Vocational education should be expanded and updgraded and should be brought into closer contact with the world of work and the specific needs of employers.

7. Multiple options. Not all youth are best served by being in either formal education or regular jobs. The range of opportunities and experiences provided by various Community Based Organizations and those programs stimulated by YEDPA legislation should be encouraged and expanded.

8. Affective and coping skills. Attitudes, values, and habits related to work, self confidence, self discipline, problem solving and analytical skills, interpersonal relations and reactions to authority all should have priority over occupational skills in preparation for employment.

9. Job-seeking skills. Next to personal attributes, understanding of the labor market and job-seeking skills are usually the most important determinants of labor market success.

10. Differentiated skill training. Careful analysis should precede occupational skill training to determine which occupations are best learned in the classroom, which on the job, and which require no forward preparation. The answer may differ for different groups. Classroom occupational training should rarely occur for disadvantaged youth without a direct placement tie into a job following training.

11. Heterogeneous grouping. Experience has demonstrated the error of limiting enrollment in any program to the most disadvantaged. There should be a mix which offers positive peer influence and role models.

12. Community support. An effective attack on the problem of school-to-work transition requires strong backing and close collaboration among all major community elements. The Work-Education Consortium of the National Manpower Institute appears to be an especially promising model.

Thus, the essence of effective forms of collaboration and structural arrangements that best serve young people is pluralism, with a sufficient variety of foci, loci, and time lines to satisfy the needs of all. If there is any one factor that influences success, it is probably the following:

> . . . the quality and commitment of administrators and staff may constitute the single most important variable influencing the overall results of employment and training programs generally, and youth programs in particular. And while the influence of program administration is seldom treated in formal analyses of program results, it nevertheless appears that strong leadership is a requisite to program success. In the entire history of federally funded manpower programs, the one thing that most successful programs have shared in common was the presence of competent, enthusiastic, and informed leaders.[40]

Public vs. Private Sector Programmatic Experience

Examples cited in the previous section provide evidence of substantial effort (and apparent success) toward assisting youth in bridging the gap between education and work. It begins to become intuitively clear that a well planned approach to youth employment and training programs at the local level would be designed to optimize the mix of: (a) school-based and non-school programming; (b) private sector approaches for those who are "job ready"; and (c) public sector programming for those who are not.[41]

In general, educators have been the main initiators of efforts to better link education and work.[42] As DeLone[43] notes, ". . . there are few examples of successful programming (and consequently little programming 'lore') around which to build private-sector-intensive youth employment and training programs, other than those which are school-related. This is in part a consequence of the predominantly public sector focus of past youth programming."

As a result, greater understanding of the relative effectiveness of private sector programmatic experience must await further demonstration and testing of the type currently being carried out by the Corporation for Public/Private Ventures.[44] This effort consists of five broad initiatives designed to replicate models and programs that have already worked (e.g., Jobs-for-Youth, 70001 LTD) or are thought to be workable (e.g., Youth Entrepreneurship).

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CHAPTER THREE

LEARNING ABOUT AND SEEKING EMPLOYMENT

The process of learning about and preparing to engage in work can be haphazard and random or systematic, informed and purposeful. Whic is the more accurate characterization of the way young people approach work? This chapter reviews a sampling of the literature related to youth work values and attitudes toward career planning; the extent of career information knowledge; how and with whom young people interact in career planning; and, the effectiveness of various educational approaches to facilitating career development.

Work Values of Youth

One frequently reads or hears popular accounts about how young people have rejected the notion of work. Serious injury, however, suggests a different view. In 1974, Daniel Yankelovich reported on a study jointly funded by five major philanthropic foundations.[45] The study was the fifth in a series of research projects on American youth that Yankelovich has carried out since 1967. As such, it is one of the few reports of its type that offers the benefit of a longitudinal perspective.[46] The sample was based on 3,522 one to two-hour personal interviews with a cross-section of the country's youth population, age sixteen to twenty-five.

The most significant finding of the study was the extraordinary pattern of change that occurred between the late 1960s and early 1970s. The study shows in great detail effects of the diffusion of a set of New Values[46] that incubated on the nation's campuses in the 1960s and have since spread out to the entire youth generation. Especially significant is Yankelovich's observation that: ". . . we are amazed by the rapidity with which this process is now taking place, by its complexity, and by the problems of adaptation it poses to the institutions of the society." Briefly summarized below are his major findings in relation to work and career.

There has been a steady increase in traditional career aspirations on campus, such as the desire to get ahead, to find economic security, and to enjoy careers which provide opportunities for both money and greater self-expression and self-fulfillment. The size of the career-minded group of college students has steadily grown over the past six years.

Even as college students are pausing to consolidate their views and values and to synthesize them with traditional career goals, they can see evidence all around them that the desire for personal self-fulfillment and the desire for a successful career need not be incompatible.

A most striking finding of the study was the extent to which the gap between college and non-college youth has closed. The research shows, to an almost uncanny degree, that non-college youth today is just about where the college population was in 1969. Social values with regard to work, money, and family are slowly being transformed. And the same intangible conflict between self-fulfillment and the economic security is spreading throughout every group in the youth population.

Many non-college youth, including those working in blue-collar jobs, have taken up the quest of their college peers for a new definition of success. Certainly there is no indication that young workers are willing to sacrifice economic gains for self-fulfillment. The change that appears to be occurring is the emphasis on rewards that go beyond economic security.

Young working people, regardless of the nature of their work, say they are ready to work hard. They do not shirk from physically hard work, and they are not worried about being asked to do more than they do now.

The difference between the personal rewards and satisfaction found at work by college-educated young people and blue-collar workers point to one of the major disparities in our society. The young blue-collar worker often brings to the job many of the same desires for rewarding work that demand the use of his brains, full resources, and creativity. However, unlike the young executive or professional, a job is often found to be just a way to kill time and make a living.

The intensity and universality of the desire for more education and training, undoubtedly one of the key findings of the study, reflects the main strategy expressed by non-college youth for dealing constructively with their present and future job frustrations, and their readiness to do something positive about it given the opportunity.

These data point to the conclusion that work which provides psychological as well as economic benefits is as attractive to the nation's high school graduates as to its college graduates. However, that the majority of noncollege youth face the prospect of growing difficulties with their jobs must be regarded as a matter of serious concern.

Attitudes Toward Career Planning

The desire of young people for more information and assistance in career planning is reported by a number of studies. In a national survey of approximately 32,000 students enrolled in 200 schools, Prediger, Roth and Noeth[48] found that 73 percent of grade eight and 79 percent of grade eleven students reported a perceived need for help in "making career plans." Parish, Rosenberg and Wilkinson[49] cite three studies relating to student needs for career information:

> In a survey sponsored by the Department of Labor, Thal-Larsen (1971) found that the majority of students surveyed wanted to know more about their chosen field. Thomas (1973) surveyed 2,100 New Jersey students' career needs. He found that career information was a high priority. Kinnick (1974) surveyed the educational information needs of high school students. She concluded that student information needs far outdistanced available information.

The Annual Gallup Polls of Attitudes Toward Education provide evidence that the general public also acknowledges the need for greater attention to career planning. The 1973 poll showed that 90 percent of respondents answered yes to the following questions: "Should public schools give more emphasis to a study of trades, professions, and businesses to help students decide on their careers?"[50] A related question asked in 1971 revealed that 60 percent of respondents agreed that ". . . too much emphasis is placed in the high schools on preparing students for college and not enough emphasis on preparing students for occupations that do not require a college degree"[51].

Knowledge of Career Information

Much of the rationale for the current interest in education-work programs is based on evidence that youth lack "adequate" knowledge of career information. The findings of nine studies are reported by Parish, Rosenberg and Wilkinson:[52]

The Manpower Administration (DOL) conducted a career information survey of several hundred thousand fifteen- to eighteen-year-olds enrolled in high schools in 1969. Results showed that students scoring low on the occupational information test outnumbered high scorers almost seven to one. Prediger, Roth, and Noeth (1973), in the previously mentioned ACT study, found that less than 50 percent of eleventh graders and approximately 40 percent of eighth graders answer correctly only one-half to three-fourths of the questions related to occupational knowledge.

The 1976 National Assessment of Education Programs study (NAEP) was conducted to determine occupational knowledge of thirteen-and seventeen-year-old high school students. Results surprisingly showed about 75 percent correct response to occupational knowledge questions.

The State of Texas Education Agency (1976) surveyed the career education needs of students in their State. They found that knowledge of occupations ranked lowest of eight factors in career decision-making. Parnes and Kohen (1973), in a national study of high school dropouts, found a high lack of information about salary and educational requirements for occupations. Kohen and Breenich (1975) developed a test to analyze the amount of occupational information known, and administered it to five thousand men, ages fourteen to twenty-four. They found that most subjects only had adequate knowledge of salary information and that white males knew more about occupations than black males. Laner (1971) surveyed high school students' needs for labor market information in career decision-making and found that two-thirds of the students reached decisions about their careers with the absence of appropriate information about jobs and careers.

Krueger (1975) reviewed the knowledge of outlook projections for seven occupational clusters with high school students in Nevada. He simply asked students to rank the clusters according to demand for workers. Results showed that students' knowledge was not significantly different from what would have been expected by chance.

The American Insitute for Research in the Behavioral Sciences conducted a five-year longitudinal study on the career development of 108,000 youth (Flanagan, 1973). Among other results, they found statistically significant relationships between an occupational information test score and (1) average hourly earnings and (2) occupational status.

Perceptions by vocational educators concerning labor market problems of high school graduates seem to agree with what previous studies have measured directly. About half of the sample of 69 vocational educators surveyed by Garbin, Campbell, Jackum and Feldman[53] believed that youths frequently have unrealistic aspirations and expectations toward job requirements and salaries.

In addition, over 40 percent of respondents attributed labor market problems of youth to (among other things) "lack of knowledge of the real demands of work." Similar findings indicating little understanding of concepts of success and achievement are reported by Lashner and Snyderman[54] in a study of 450 high school dropouts from a North Philadelphia ghetto.

Parnes and Kohen[55] offer persuasive evidence of considerable variation in the extent of occupational information according to demographic and social characteristics. A national sample of young men 14 to 24 years of age was administered a test of occupational information. Data were analyzed separately for those in school, those out of school and, within each group for blacks and whites. There was a substantial relation for students between grade level and occupational information (i.e., seniors scored about two-thirds of a standard deviation higher than freshmen.) For those out of school, occupational information was strongly related to education attainment and, to a lesser degree, years in the labor market since leaving school. For all sub-groups, extent of labor market information was found to bear strong positive relationships to socioeconomic status and measured intelligence. Urban youth scored higher than rural youth in all subgroups. Finally, when all of the other factors were controlled, white youth scored consistently higher than black youth on extent of occupational information.

Assistance with Career Planning

The need for assistance with career planning appears to be in sharp constrast to the help youth actually receive. The Prediger, Roth, and Noeth[56] study for ACT showed that half of the 11th graders, and slightly more 8th graders, state they have received little or no help with career planning. Since 84 percent of 11th graders said they can usually or almost always see a counselor when they want to, the lack of help with career planning apparently isn't due to the unavailability of school counselors. The implication is (for whatever reason) that many counselors simply are not providing help with career planning and, as a result, students do not expect or request help.

With whom then do youth consult in the process of making educational and occupational decisions? Data from the ACT study[57] are summarized in Table 4.

The table shows over 90 percent of the 11th graders indicate that they have discussed their occupational choices with a parent, relative, or guardian. More conventional career guidance activities, however, are utilized considerably less. The breadth of evidence indicates that a substantial number of 11th graders have had little involvement in formal career planning at a time when major decisions are becoming imminent.

As part of the National Assessment of Education Progress,[58] a sample of 17 year olds was asked to indicate persons with whom career plans have been discussed at least once. Again, parents are the most frequently listed category (62 percent), followed by peers (38 percent), school counselors (35 percent), teachers (14 percent), and other adults (14 percent). But, seventeen year olds in school were less likely to have talked to a parent than those still in school 34 percent compared to 64 percent).

Similar patterns are found in relation to educational decision making. In a study of over 30,000 high school seniors in four states, Tillery[59] reports that of those who considered college, the most frequently cited sources of advice about choice of colleges were: parents (43 percent), counselors (22 percent), other students (16 percent), teachers (10 percent), and college admissions officers (9 percent).

The above studies describe whom youth consult with in making choices about occupations and college. A 1973 Bureau of Labor Statistics study cited by Mangum[60] illustrates typical methods employed in a job search. Responses of over ten million wage and salary workers who sought work sometime in 1972 are summarized in Table 5. Two-thirds applied directly to employers, one-half inquired among friends, and about one quarter asked relatives. For those who actually attained a job, one-third did so through direct application to employers. Public and private employment services were less used and much less effective than direct means.

Job-seeking behavior, however, is much more complex than Table 5 suggests. A more analytical treatment is provided in a special report of the National Commission for Manpower Policy[61] entitled Labor Market Intermediaries. See especially Stevens' paper on "A Reexamination of What Is Known

TABLE 4
SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO SELECTED CAREER PLANNING INVOLVEMENT QUESTIONS

Typical Activities	Response Option	Grade 8			Grade 11		
		%M	%F	%Tot.	%M	%F	%Tot.
A. Activities related to students' 1st two occupational choices							
1. Discussed the jobs with a parent, relative, or guardian	A	19	14	17	11	6	9
	B	38	36	37	32	23	28
	C	43	50	47	56	71	63
2. Talked with workers in the jobs about how they came to be in the jobs.	A	49	52	50	43	40	41
	B	36	35	36	36	39	37
	C	15	13	14	21	22	22
3. Talked with a counselor or teacher about how my goals, interests, and abilities relate to the jobs.	A	63	65	64	46	38	42
	B	28	26	27	37	39	38
	C	9	9	9	17	23	20
B. Activities related to career plans in general							
4. Discussed, in class, jobs related to the subject we were studying.	A	33	32	33	25	20	23
	B	48	48	48	47	49	48
	C	19	20	19	28	31	30
5. Took a course in school that studied several different types of jobs.	A	71	80	76	66	70	68
	B	22	16	19	26	23	25
	C	7	4	5	8	7	7
6. Read a job description from the school library or guidance office job files.	A	60	62	61	44	36	40
	B	28	28	28	37	37	37
	C	12	10	11	19	27	23
7. Took a tour through a local industry, business, hospital, or office to observe what the various jobs were like.	A	32	37	34	41	42	41
	B	47	44	46	42	43	42
	C	21	18	20	17	16	16
8. Attended a "job fair" or "career day" where workers talked about jobs.	A	78	82	80	67	63	65
	B	17	14	16	24	26	25
	C	5	3	4	9	10	10
9. Took part in an actual or a practice job interview.	A	75	80	78	55	54	55
	B	18	15	17	31	34	32
	C	6	4	5	14	12	13

A. No, I haven't done this OR the time I spent on this is not worth mentioning.
B. Yes, I have done this but only once or twice.
C. Yes, I have done this several times.

Source: Prediger, Roth and Noeth, 1973, p. 17.

TABLE 5

METHODS USED TO SEEK AND FIND WORK
(1972)

Method	Job Search Number	Job Search Percent	Job Finding Number	Job Finding Percent
Total (thousands)	10,437	100.0%	10,437	100.0%
Applied directly to employer		66.0		34.9
Asked friends:				
About jobs where they work		50.8		12.4
About jobs elsewhere		41.8		5.5
Asked relatives:				
About jobs where they work		28.4		6.1
About jobs elsewhere		27.3		2.2
Answered newspaper ads:				
Local		45.9		12.2
Nonlocal		11.7		1.3
Private employment agency		21.0		5.6
State employment agency		33.5		5.1
School placement office		12.5		3.0
Civil service test		15.3		2.1
Asked teacher or professor		10.4		1.4
Went to place where employers come to pick up people		1.4		0.1
Placed ads in newspaper:				
Local		1.6		0.2
Nonlocal		0.5		(a)
Answered ads in professional or trade journals		4.9		0.4
Union hiring halls		6.0		1.5
Contact local organization		5.6		0.8
Placed ads in professional or trade journals		0.6		(a)
Other		11.8		5.2

(a) Less than 0.05 percent

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Jobseeking Methods Used by American Workers, Bulletin 1886 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975), pp. 4 and 7.

About Jobseeking Behavior in the United States," in which 34 studies spanning the period 1937-1977 are reviewed.

Mangum[62] notes that reliance on informal methods of job search is not irrational. Friends or relatives who work in an establishment are generally more interested in the job seeker's welfare and more knowledgeable about job quality. Applying directly to an employer may open up a job for which no vacancy exists.

Wegmann[63] provides evidence that job-finding is a highly teachable/learnable skill. He describes three programs that successfully help persons unemployed for substantial periods of time to obtain jobs within a few weeks. A number of elements typically found in job-search assistance programs seems to be keys to their success:

1. One principle of an effective program is that it provides a structure that defines looking for a job as itself a full-time job, to be worked at eight hours a day, five days a week.
2. Another key to success is that the group nature of these programs provides the social support necessary to sustain a continued effort.
3. While continued effort is important, that effort is much more likely to lead to success if it is well placed. These programs, therefore, stress direct approaches to potential employers.
4. There is intense preparation for the employment interview. Interview situations are role-played and often videotaped so that they can be played back and critiqued.
5. All of this takes place in an atmosphere as deliberately upbeat as possible. This helps to generate the inner confidence and positive attitudes that themselves contribute to successful job interviews.

Importantly, job-search assistant programs such as these (i.e., "job-finding club", "Job Factory", and "Self-Directed Placement Corporation") represent new directions for DOL funded projects. The preparation and dissemination of "Guidelines and Considerations for CETA Prime Sponsors"[64] that is designed to help foster a broader range of career information, counseling and information services under CETA programs is another significant DOL initiative worth noting.

Effectiveness of Various Approaches to Providing Career Information

A steadily increasing number of projects, curricula, and guidance and counseling approaches are being used to disseminate career information solely or as part of a more comprehensive program. A 1979 publication entitled Career Information: Resources, Applications, and Research 1950-1979 by Parish, Rosenberg and Wilkinson provides an impressive review of the effectiveness of various approaches including: career education projects, career information units or courses, methods of disseminating career information, effects of career information on special groups, and computerized and other technical career information systems (see Tables 6, 7 and 8.) Suffice it here to only include the summary and conclusions from the review and to recommend to the reader a thorough study of the document.[65]

1. Federal and state legislation, and funding for career information and related projects has increased significantly over the past ten years. Future funding apparently will remain high.

2. School age students' expressed need for career information is high while knowledge of information, at this time, is low.

3. Career information publications, both commercial and non-commercial in a variety of formats, are increasingly abundant. Many questions of impact, quality, and usage remain to be answered.

4. Different methods of presenting career information have been evaluated in outcome studies. The most conclusive impact on students is knowledge gained about occupations. Some long-term practical benefits of received occupational information have also been found. Methods of presenting information which are innovative or experimental are more effective than lectures or written materials alone.

5. Computerized and other technical career information systems are developing at a rapid pace and are becoming primary means of providing career information in some areas. Statewide usage of these systems has been supported by federal and state legislation. Most of the systems are interactive and provide localized, updated information about occupations, training, and outlook. Some of the systems incorporate guidance functions such as decision-making training.

TABLE 6

SELECTED STUDIES OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF OCCUPATIONAL UNITS OR COURSES

SOURCE	POPULATION SAMPLED	SAMPLE SIZE	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	RESULTS
Chambela (1968)	9th grade	98	guidance unit vs control	shift in occupational choice..	experimental>control
				knowledge of occupations......	no difference between groups
Cherdack (1974)	9-12 grade disadvantaged	60	occupational models on videotape vs traditional counseling (control)	knowledge of occupations...... (self-report)	experimental>control
Cuony & Hoppock (1954)	12th grade	70	course or job orientation and occupations vs control group	one year follow-up	
				job satisfaction.........	experimental>control
				earnings.................	experimental>control
Cuony & Hoppock (1957)				five year follow-up	
				job satisfaction.........	experimental>control
				earnings.................	experimental>control
				# weeks employed.........	experimental>control
Darcy, Kaufman & Miller	9-12 grade	(N.A.)*	course on world of work vs control	five year follow-up	
				wages earned.............	no difference between groups
Devalt (1963)	11th grade	62	career planning unit vs control	realism of choice............	experimental>control

(continued)

*N.A. means that the data were not available when the review of the literature was conducted.

EFFECTIVENESS OF OCCUPATIONAL UNITS -- 2

SOURCE	POPULATION SAMPLED	SAMPLE SIZE	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	RESULTS
Emerson (1966)	9-12 grade	(N.A.)	occupational information class pre-post	percentage of group making career decisions	70% percent before treatment 82% percent after
Eversoll (1971)	11th grade males	201	industrial arts careers information vs control	attitude toward industrial arts occupations knowledge of occupations information seeking behavior	experimental > control experimental > control experimental > control
Freeland (1975)	12th grade Navajo Indians	117	career information unit (5 hour) pre-post	occupational choide knowledge of occupations	no significant change significant gain
Gorman (1956)	11th grade males	124	classroom unit on occupations vs control	change in vocational preference concern over problem areas realism of choice	experimental > control experimental > control no difference between groups
Guerra (1963)	9th grade males	60	occupations unit vs control	occupational knowledge study habits	experimental > control no difference between groups
Hamdani (1974)	10th grade disadvantaged	(N.A.)	career awareness curriculum vs control	vocational maturity information seeking behavior	experimental > control experimental > control

(continued)

EFFECTIVENESS OF OCCUPATIONAL UNITS -- 3

SOURCE	POPULATION SAMPLED	SAMPLE SIZE	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	RESULTS
Hill (1965)	9th grade	602	one semester class in occupational information vs control	realism of choice stability of choice	experimental > control experimental > control
Hurwitz & White (1977)	11th grade	(N.A.)	information unit on opportunities for women boys vs girls	status of chosen occupations	boys > girls
Lawson & Bancroft (1966)	11th & 12th grade	313	videotape presentation of occupations	student reaction counselor reaction	"majority of responses were favorable"
Leonard (1961)	10th & 11th grade low achievers	26	career course pre-post	realism of choice change of plans	"considerable change choices"
Nichol (1969)	9th grade	140	small group career discussion vs control	vocational maturity	no difference between groups
Poltkin (1966)	9-12th grade low ability males	(N.A.)	occupational information classes vs control	vocational interest patterns	no difference between groups

(continued)

EFFECTIVENESS OF OCCUPATIONAL UNITS -- 4

SOURCE	POPULATION SAMPLED	SAMPLE SIZE	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	RESULTS
Robertson (1970)	9-12 grade vocational agriculture & horticulture	(N.A.)	classroom unit vs control	interests: intensity clarity change consistency	no difference between groups
Salas (1976)	9-12 grade Black students	(N.A.)	structured career orientation program vs control	changes in expressed interests	no difference between groups
Schmeiding & Jensen (1968)	11th & 12th grade American Indians	78	occupations information vs control	vocational maturity	no difference between groups
				vocational tenacity	no difference between groups
Stugart (1970)	9-12 grade Minority students	(N.A.)	occupational information through modeling vs control	information seeking behavior	experimental > control
Toporowski (1961)	12th grade non-academic	300	occupations unit vs control	3 month follow-up interests	no difference between groups
				occupational information	no difference between groups
				independence in choice	experimental > control
				more money	experimental > control
				job satisfaction	experimental > control
				furthering education	no difference between groups
				percentage employed	experimental > control

(continued)

EFFECTIVENESS OF OCCUPATIONAL UNITS -- 5

SOURCE	POPULATION SAMPLED	SAMPLE SIZE	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	RESULTS
Tripp (1974)	9-12 grade	120	occupational unit on construction occupations vs control	knowledge of construction occupations	no difference between groups
West (1967)	9-12 grade Black students	97	career guidance with occupation information vs control	interests occupational knowledge estimate of ability to do job	experimental > control no difference between groups no difference between groups
Witczak & Ehlers (1970)	10th grade	60	occupational information and field trips (post questionnaire)	self-reported awareness attitude realism	"gains reported by participants"
Wixom (1963)	9th grade	145	occupation unit (post questionnaire)	three year follow-up change in career choice	34% change
Wolf (1966)	11th & 12th grade	296	unit on agricultural occupations vs control	occupational aspirations scale	no difference between groups

Source: Parish, Rosenberg and Wilkinson, 1979, Appendix A.

TABLE 7

STUDIES COMPARING DIFFERENT METHODS OF DISSEMINATING OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION

SOURCE	POPULATION SAMPLED	SAMPLE SIZE	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	RESULTS
Jepsen (1972)	9th grade rural	262	written and videotapes 1) of field trips vs 2) written	occupational knowledge	1 > 2
Johnson, Korn, & Dunn (1975)	9-12th grade reluctant	58	1) slide-tape & audio vs 2) written vs control	information test attitudes	1 > 2 1 > 2
Jones & Krumboltz (1970)	10th grade	270	problem solving film 1) active participation with film 2) problem solving 3) passive controls 4) traditional film 5) written specific information 6) written general information 7) filler film	expressed interest inventoried interest attitudes exploratory behavior	experimental > control experimental > control experimental > control no difference between groups 1 and 2
Laramore (1971)	9th grade	170	1) speakers vs 2) slide-tape vs 3) written	occupational information intent to explore information actual information seeking behavior	2 > 3 1 = 2 > 3 no difference between groups

(continued)

DISSEMINATING OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION -- 2

SOURCE	POPULATION SAMPLED	SAMPLE SIZE	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	RESULTS
MacDonald (1972)	12th grade	129	1) videotape vs 2) slides and videotape vs 3) control	occupational information student receptivity	no difference between groups 2 > 1
Miller (1953)	9-12th grade	99	1) films & discussion 2) field trips and discussion 3) control	occupational information stability of occupation choice	2 > 1 > 3 2 > 1 > 3
Nowakowski (1974)	9-12th grade girls	183	1) classroom instruction 2) group interaction 3) control	vocational maturity vocational motivation self-concept vocational concept	no difference between groups 2 > 1 = 3 no difference between groups no difference betweeen groups
Petersen (1971)	9th grade	170	1) video vs 2) audio	vocational maturity attitude scale occupational information retention of information	no difference between groups no difference between groups 1 > 2 groups no difference between groups

(continued)

DISSEMINATING OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION -- 3

SOURCE	POPULATION SAMPLED	SAMPLE SIZE	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	RESULTS
Pilato & Myers (1975)	9-12th grade	139	1) computer feedback on self-knowledge vs 2) occupational class system vs 3) both of the above	realism of choice	1 and 3 > 2
Raskin (1968)	12th grade girls	115	1) information lecture vs 2) psychosocial information vs 3) control	change of plans	1 = 2 > 3
Shiraishi (1975)	"Adolescents" Puerto Rican	(N.A.)	1) field trip & discussion vs 2) work experience	aspiration level occupational choice	1 > 2 1 > 2
Smith (1970)	9-12th grade	174	1) formal lecture 2) group guidance 3) control	change in interest self-initiated exploration	no difference between groups no difference between groups

(continued)

DISSEMINATING OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION -- 4

SOURCE	POPULATION SAMPLED	SAMPLE SIZE	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	RESULTS
Stilwell & Thoreson (1972)	10th grade boys Mexican-American & White	247	1) video modeling (ethnic similarity & dissimilarity) vs 2) reading a script & listening	vocational interest	no difference between groups
				information-seeking behavior	no difference between groups
				vocational attitudes	no difference between groups (interaction)
Sturges (1969)	high school	270	1) unit with field experience vs 2) unit with textbook	occupational knowledge	1 = 2
				aspirations	1 = 2 all measures
				attitudes	1 = 2 showed gain for
				importance of job factors	1 = 2 both groups
Yungman (1967)	12th grade black non-college	80	1) written materials vs 2) tape recordings vs 3) tape recordings and photographs vs control	occupational information	3 > 2 = 1 control

Source: Parish, Rosenberg and Wilkinson, 1979, Appendix B.

TABLE 8

STUDIES EVALUATING CAREER INFORMATION SYSTEMS

SOURCE	POPULATION SAMPLED	SAMPLE SIZE	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	RESULTS
Arnold (1978)	high school jr. college college	183	CIS (Georgia)	user reaction.................	96% easy to use 82% useful 87% helped in decision making 86% sought additional information
McKinley & Adams (1971)	9-12th grade	500	CIS (Oregon) vs control	use........................... knowledge of occupations...... career plans..................	50% voluntary usage experimental > control experimental > control
Weick (1972)	adults Employment Service clientele	267	1) CIS (Oregon) vs 2) manual vs 3) traditional counseling	job planning.................. client exploratory activity..................... satisfaction with information..................	1 = 2 > 3 1 = 2 > 3 1 > 2 > 3
Ross (1971)	Community College	(N.A.)	CIS (Oregon) vs traditional counseling (control)	career planning............... career certainty.............. time to obtain information.................. satisfaction..................	control > experimental control > experimental experimental > control no difference between groups

(continued)

EVALUATING SYSTEMS -- 2

SOURCE	POPULATION SAMPLED	SAMPLE SIZE	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	RESULTS
Colorado Career Information System (1978)	disadvantaged youth	143	CIS (Colorado) in workshop setting	satisfaction	majority positive
				gain in needs and values awareness	significant gain
				self/career-matching awareness	significant gain
Denver Public Schools (1979)	10-12th grade	150	CIS (Colorado)	number of occupations seen as options	experimental > control
				information-seeking behavior	experimental > control
				increase in number of non-traditional careers	experimental > control
Rosenberg (1978)	college students undecided majors	96	1) CIS (Colorado) vs 2) large career group, lecture vs 3) combination of 1) & 2) vs 4) control	knowledge of occupational information	experimental > control
				realism of choice	no difference between groups
				deciding on a career/major	experimental > control
Wolff (1976)	10-12th grade and Vocationall Rehabilitation adults	579	CIS (Colorado)	change in preferred occupation	70%
				certainty of preference	69%
				satisfaction with CIS	91% positive

(continued)

EVALUATING SYSTEMS -- 3

SOURCE	POPULATION SAMPLED	SAMPLE SIZE	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	RESULTS
Harris (1976)	10th grade	131	CVIS vs control	number of occupations considered as options	no difference between groups
				congruence (realism)	no difference between groups
				occupational information	experimental > control
				vocational maturity	experimental > control
Maola & Kane	10-12th grade disadvantaged vocational	72	1) CVIS vs 2) counselor-based information vs 3) control	occupational information	1 > 2 > 3
Melhaus, Hershenson & Vermillion (1973)	10th grade high and low ability	108	CVIS vs individual counseling	change in occupational choice	interaction low readiness changed more with counseling
				satisfaction with vocational choice	no difference between groups
Schroeder and Fulco (1975)	10-12th grade	(N.A.)	CVIS	user satisfaction	majority of positive responses

(continued)

EVALUATING SYSTEMS -- 4

SOURCE	POPULATION SAMPLED	SAMPLE SIZE	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	RESULTS
Smith & Gimmestad (1975)	10-12th grade	1168	CVIS	user reaction	majority said it was interesting & helpful
		70	CVIS vs control	attitude of planfulness	experimental > control
				occupational information	no difference between groups
				vocational maturity	experimental > control
Doerr (1979)	9-12th grade	(N.A.)	DISCOVER	user satisfaction	majority liked it, & thought it was useful
Rayman, Bryson, & Bowlsbey (1978)	7-12th grade	60	DISCOVER vs traditional guidance	user satisfaction	majority said it was useful
				specification of plans	experimental > control
				occupational knowledge	no difference between groups
				vocational maturity	no difference between groups
				vocational exploratory behavior	no difference between groups
				self-awareness	no difference between groups
				decision-making skills	no difference between groups

(continued)

SOURCE	POPULATION SAMPLED	SAMPLE SIZE	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	RESULTS
Savin (1979)	9-12th grade	295	DISCOVER	student reaction (two separate years)	1978 1979 recommend to a friend 91% 67% like it very much 73% 51% very helpful 56% 48%
James & Smith (1972)	11th grade disadvantaged	(N.A.)	ECES vs traditional counseling (control)	career choice change and certainty	control > experimental
				decision-making ability	control > experimental
				considered	experimental > control
Myers (1972)	10th grade	2245	ECES vs control	vocational maturity: planning orientation	experimental > control
				use of resources	experimental > control
				occupational information	no difference between groups
				decision-making ability	no difference between groups
Drake, Friel, & Tyler (1976)	10th grade	(N.A.)	1) ECES III vs 2) ECES II vs	occupational knowledge	1 > 2 and 3
				decision-making skills	1 > 2 and 3
				attitudes	1 > 2 and 3
				information-seeking behavior	1 > 2 and 3

(continued)

SOURCE	POPULATION SAMPLED	SAMPLE SIZE	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	RESULTS
Chapman, Katz, Norris and Pears (1977)	community college students	(N.A.)	SIGI vs control	user satisfaction	86-90% high ratings
				decision-making ability	experimental > control
				awareness of career satisfaction	experimental > control
				information seeking behavior	experimental > control
				knowledge of chosen occupation	experimental > control
Federicksen (1978)	community college	500	SIGI vs traditional counseling (control)	grade point average	no difference between groups
				attrition	no difference between groups
				student ratings	no difference between groups
				information about occupation	experimental > control
				college information	experimental > control
				certainty of choice	experimental > control
				satisfaction with plans	experimental > control
Willinghain (1978)	10-12th grade and community college	155	SIGI vs control	awareness of values	experimental > control
				amount of information	experimental > control
				certainty of major	experimental > control
English (1974)	12th grade	150	1) VIEW vs 2) GIS vs 3) control	vocational maturity	1 = 2 > 3 on certain subscales

(continued)

SOURCE	POPULATION SAMPLED	SAMPLE SIZE	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	DEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)	RESULTS
Gerstein & Hoover (1969)	9-12th grade	175	VIEW vs control	student opinion	majority positive to VIEW
				vocational maturity	experimental > control
				occupational knowledge	experimental > control
Harris (1976)	10-12th grade	120	VIEW vs control	user satisfaction	majority positive to VIEW
				vocational maturity	experimental > control on two subscales
Link (1970)	9-12th grade	20 high schools	VIEW	voluntary usage	60%
				student satisfaction	majority positive
Mogle (1972)	9-12th grade	1,765	VIEW	recognition of VIEW as source of information	14%
				use of VIEW	8%
				student reaction	majority positive
				counselor & teacher reaction	majority positive
				vocational choice status	no difference between groups
Whitfield and Glaeser (1968)	9-11th grade	1,296	VIEW vs control	information-seeking behavior	no difference between groups
				awareness	no difference between groups

Source: Parish, Rosenberg and Wilkinson, 1979, Appendix C.

6. Studies evaluating career information systems have shown a majority of favorable student responses in helpfulness, ease of use, and quality of information provided. Impacts of the use of these systems have been found in the voational maturity attitudes, and exploratory behavior of students. Also, users gain in their knowledge of occupations to a significant extent.

7. Many excellent organizations and institutions are continuously conducting research in career information. Since publications often lag one or two years behind completion of research, interested individuals are encouraged to maintain contact with the organizations previously mentioned.

8. It appears that career information research is lacking and could be improved in the following ways:

   A. Longitudinal studies need to be conducted to determine the actual practical benefits of career information programs or systems, rather than just pure information gain. Included among the criteria might be job satisfaction, earnings, or career stability.

   B. Long-term retention of career information (e.g. one year later) should be used as an outcome criterion more frequently than immediate knowledge gained.

   C. Career information research needs to be integrated with career development (maturity) research to determine optimum stages of readiness for using such information.

   D. Further investigation of why career information has not enhanced realism of choices needs to be conducted.

   E. Effects of career information systems or programs need to be factor analyzed for sex, volunteer versus compulsory usage, adults versus school age students, and personality factors.

   F. Investigations into students' cognitive processing of career information needs to be conducted. This will help to determine what students do internally with the information they receive.

CHAPTER FOUR

NATIONAL OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION COORDINATING COMMITTEE

The nature, comprehensiveness, and future potential of the National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee (NOICC) and the State Occupational Information Coordinating Committees (SOICCs) are such as to merit separate attention in this chapter. The following discussion is synthesized from two recent NOICC publications.[66]

Enabling Legislation

Four separate legislative acts have been passed that specifically refer to the NOICC and SOICCs. The first of these, the Education Amendments of 1976, (P.L. 94-482) establishes the NOICC in these words:

> Section 161 (b) (1) - ". . . There is hereby established a National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee which shall consist of the Commissioner (of Education), the Administrator (of the National Center for Education Statistics), the Commissioner of Labor Statistics, and the Assistant Secretary for Employment and Training."

And charges the NOICC with specific functions:

> Section 161 (b) (1) - "This committee shall--
>
> (A) in the use of program data and employment data, improve coorindation between, and communication among, administrators and planners of programs authorized by this Act and by the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973, employment security agency administrators, research personnel, and employment and training planning and administering agencies at the Federal, State, and local levels;
>
> (B) develop and implement. . . an occupational information system to meet the common occupational information needs of vocational education programs and employment and training programs at the National, State, and local levels, which system shall include data on occupational demand and supply based on uniform definitions, standardized estimating procedures, and standardized occupational classifications, and

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> (C) assist State occupational information coordinating committees . . ."

Additionally, the legislation pertaining to SOICCs states that:

> ". . . each State receiving assistance under this Act and under the Comprehensive Employment Training Act of 1973 shall establish a State Occupational Information Coordinating Committee composed of representatives of the State board, the State Employment Security Agency, the State Manpower Services Council, and the agency administering the vocational rehabilitation program. This committee shall, with funds available to it from the National Coordinating Committee, implement an occupational information system in the State which will meet the common needs for the planning for, and the operation of, programs of the State board assisted under this Act and of the administering agencies under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973."

Subsequent legislation has expanded the scope of NOICC and SOICC activities. The Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act (YEDPA) of 1977 (P.L. 95-93), among other things, directs NOICC to respond to the occupational information needs of unemployed youth. The third piece of legislation to refer to the NOICC is The Career Education Incentive Act of 1977 (P.L. 95-207). Section 12(a) of this Act charges the Commissioner of Education with cooperating and consulting with the NOICC in examining the "occupational information needs of individuals and organizations eligible for participation in programs assisted by this Act." Finally, The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) Amendments of 1978 (P.L. 95-524), which superseded YEDPA, charges the NOICC with additional responsibilities concerning the labor market information needs of youth.

Mandates and Objectives

Arising from the legislation are three broad mandates:

1. To Improve Communication and Coordination

The basic objective of the NOICC and the SOICCs is to foster linkages and otherwise create a cooperative atmosphere among the users and producers of occupational and related data. Activities will be directed primarily toward vocational education, vocational rehabilitation, and manpower training planners and administrators. The NOICC is supporting SOICCs to meet these objectives within the States.

2. To Develop and Implement an Occupational Information System (OIS)

The legislation specifies the purpose of an OIS but does little to explain the specific information to be used and the manner in which an OIS is to be developed and implemented. This mandate, therefore, has been expanded into a series of objectives, the first of which defines an OIS and its basic content. Another objective establishes a strategy for development and implementation.

The NOICC will not be a primary data gathering agency but principally will coordinate such efforts among its member agencies. The OIS will consist of: the identified specific occupational and related information or data elements developed through programs of NOICC/SOICC member agencies and other agencies in the National, State, and local levels, as well as identified procedures for the systematic assembly, analysis, and presentation of the data. The NOICC is supporting SOICC activities concerning the implementation of the OIS in the States.

The OIS development process will be multi-faceted to meet the needs of various users and satisfy legislative requirements. Of necessity, the development of an OIS will be a process with users' information needs being better satisfied as system capabilities and resources expand. At the same time that the OIS is being developed, the system will also be operational, providing reliable and relevant information to a variety of user groups at periodic intervals. This dual requirement---that the system be operational and developmental simultaneously---dictates that the OIS implementation plan consider two objectives, one directed toward urgent short-term operational consideration and the other toward long-term OIS development objectives.

3. To Give Special Attention to the Labor Market Information (LMI) Needs of Youth

The legislation has directed the NOICC to encourage the development and use of career outlook information needed by youth and to encourage existing programs to make employment and career counseling available to youth.

The NOICC has two primary objectives in this area. They are to:

Fund and otherwise support research and demonstration activities.

Establish and guide SOICC efforts in career information development and delivery.

To a significant extent the three broad legislative mandates described above are interrelated. The development of an OIS, for example, will include labor market and training information for use in career information delivery systems.

NOICC-SOICC Structure

The NOICC comprises members of four Federal agencies. It is bound by interagency Agreement, and is governed by a board made up of representatives of the statutory members. The statutory members are jointly responsible for the operation of the NOICC, and, by extension, the SOICCs. The four agencies represented by the statutory members, and referred to as the NOICC member agencies, are: The Office of Education (OE), the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), the Employment and Training Administration (ETA), and the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS).

An Interagency Agreement has been signed by the statutory members that specifies how the NOICC shall conduct its affairs. The agreement incorporates the legislative mandates and specifies procedures for the conduct of business, including staffing of the Committee and arrangements for office space. It provides the NOICC with procedures for the utilization and disbursement of funds. It allows the NOICC to determine the purpose for which available funds will be expended subject to the concurrence of the four-party Technical Steering Group.

The SOICC structure is similar to the NOICC structure in concept. Figure 1 depicts NOICC/SOICC organizational interrelationships and shows them as the center of a series of linkages extending across Federal and State agency boundaries.

Attention to the Labor Market Information Needs of Youth

The NOICC has initiated various activities that relate to the labor market information needs of youth. A description of the major projects in process is presented below:

> Provision of Labor Market Information to Philadelphia's Inner-City Youth--In August, 1978, the NOICC funded, through ETA, a project to provide enriched labor market information to a sample of minority inner-city youth in Philadelphia and to measure their success in the job market as compared with a control group whose members did not receive the intensified exposure to labor market information.
>
> Two-Phased Study of Career Guidance Information--In early August, 1978, the NOICC transferred money to the National Institute of Education (NIE) to allow NIE to support a two-phased study concerned with career information. One phase will examine the content, quality, and methods of delivering career information to secondary school students. The second will evaluate the effectiveness of alternative information delivery systems in improving career awareness.
>
> Assistance in the Establishment of Career Information Systems--In September, 1978, the NOICC transferred money to the Joint Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education (FIPSE) to augment resources being made available by FIPSE to the Oregon Career Information Service. The purpose of the project is to provide technical assistance to at least five states to establish career information systems, to lay the foundation for self-sustaining technical assistance and training services, and to develop an institute-like approach to training that draws on the resources of existing successful State CISs. The FIPSE and the NOICC staff stress that their support of this project is not an endorsement of any particular career information system or system component.

SOICC directors in a growing number of States are working closely with youth-oriented programs to determine the information needs of the programs and disseminate program information. Several SOICCs are developing career information delivery systems in their States. Specific activities initiated by SOICCs to help meet the labor market information needs of youth are described below:

Department of Health Education, and Welfare

Department of Labor

Rehabilitation Services Administration

Office of Education

National Center for Education Statistics

NOICC

Employment and Training Administration

Bureau of Labor Statistics

Regional Offices

Regional Offices

Regional Offices

Vocational Rehabilitation Agency

State Vocational Education Agency

State Employment Security Agency

State Employment and Training Council

SOICC

Local Education Agency

Employment Security Local Office

Prime Sponsors

FIGURE 1. NOICC/SOICC ORGANIZATIONAL INTERRELATIONSHIPS

Training for Parent Surrogates of Institutionalized Youth--The SOICC of the District of Columbia is developing a training module for institutional staff, serving as parent surrogates for institutionalized youth. The training will develop career awareness as it relates to the interests, skills, and abilities of these youth. The project will provide a forum for interaction between institutionalized youth and institutional staff and professinals. Staff will be trained in special group and individual career counseling techniques appropriate for youth with possible low motivation.

Career Information Systems Development--A number of SOICCs, including Maine, Nebraska, North Carolina, and South Carolina, are involved in the development and implementation of career information systems. Funds for these efforts have been obtained from a variety of local and State program sources. The systems are designed specifically to provide meaningful career information to youth.

The NOICC's mandate to give special attention to the labor market information needs of youth will be met in part through a new grants program still being developed. The general direction of the program is described below:

CIDS Grants Program--In June, 1979, the NOICC will announce to the SOICCs a competitive grants program designed to encourage and support the implementation of Statewide Career Information Delivery Systems (CIDS). The grant awards are expected to be made to about 11 SOICCs by January, 1980. In addition to special-purpose projects being conducted by SOICCs, the CIDS program is responsive to specific activities called for in the CETA Amendments of 1978. Briefly, they are: Providing occupational and career outlook information, assisting the development of State occupational information systems, providing employment and career counseling information to post-secondary youth, and supporting counseling in correctional institutions through the provision of career information.

Although a great deal of work remains to be done by the NOICC and SOICCs, much has been accomplished. The results of the activities mentioned above as well as new activities are reported in periodic NOICC publications.

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CHAPTER FIVE

CAREER INFORMATION MATERIALS

The development and dissemination of occupational information materials has been a function of the federal government for many years (the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* was first published in 1939).[67] In the last decade or so, state departments of education, universities, local education agencies and a host of other public and private organizations have become actively involved in materials development stimulated in large part by vocational education and career education research and development monies. So too have commercial publishing companies' become large-scale developers of occupational information and other types of instructional materials. This chapter will describe the nature and scope of materials development and illustrate how materials have changed in recent years.

Government Publications

The federal government is unquestionably the largest publisher of career information materials. In response to Section 12a of the Career Education Incentive Act which calls for the furnishing of information to interested parties on "Federal programs which gather, analyze, and disseminate occupational and career information" the NOICC[68] has completed a comprehensive survey. The 283 page NOICC publication identifies all federal agencies and organizations that "collet, analyze or publish data related to occupational supply or demand". The number of agencies involved, and the number and type of materials provided by the federal government boggles the mind.

A more succinct listing of commonly used government publications has been identified by Parish, Rosenberg, and Wilkinson[69] as follows:

> *The Occupational Outlook Handbook* is one of the most comprehensive sources of occupational and industrial career information available. Published every two years by the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics, it provides information on the nature of work, long-term employment outlook, and related topics for hundreds of occupations, and major industries.

The Occupational Outlook Quarterly supplements the Occupational Outlook Handbook by presenting up-to-date occupational outlook and other timely manpower information.

The Dictionary of Occupational Titles, (D.O.T.), published by the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Employment Security, is an encyclopedia of job definitions and related data. The 1977 edition of the D.O.T. contains information on about 22,000 jobs.

The Handbook on Women Workers is published every two years by the U.S. Department of Labor's Women's Bureau. It is a sourcebook of facts on women's employment, occupations, earnings, education, and related subjects.

U.S. Army Opportunies, U.S. Navy Occupational Handbook, U.S. Air Force Occupational Handbook, and Occupational Specialties issued by the U.S. Marine Corps. Each major branch of the Armed Forces published a comprehensive career handbook and related materials which describe occupations and training programs for enlisted men.

Guide to Federal Career Literature. This guide is a directory of publications from departments and agencies within the federal government. Also included are general publications (e.g., "Who's Hiring Engineers").

Federal Career Directory. This directory is a guide to government agencies which hire people with specific college degrees and career interests.

Guide to Local Occupational Information. This publication is a directory of selected State Employment Service studies, bulletins, brochures, and other releases intended to provide current local occupational information for use in designing training programs, for counseling in local public employment offices and schools, and to offer individual jobseekers and vocational counselors concrete information on job opportunities in specific occupations or groups of occupations.

The Occupational Outlook Handbook is probably more widely used than other government publications of its types for disseminating occupational information to youth.

Essentially all occupational information publications of the federal government are similar in format and appearance. The Health Careers Guidebook[70] published in 1979 is a typical example. This softcover book is approximately 8 ½ x 11 inches in size; the text is printed margin to margin interrupted only occasionally by a black and white photograph; occupational descriptions are written in the same impersonal and repetitive style; and concepts and vocabulary are often quite sophisticated as the following excerpt demonstrates: "Anatomy, pharmacology, biochemistry, physiology, microbiology, and pathology are some of the basic science courses which are formerly taught in laboratories and classrooms during the first 2 years, followed by 2 years of clinical teaching, when the student began to work with patients and learned to apply basic medical knowledge to solving clinical problems."

Efforts by the federal government to produce low cost, up-to-date, comprehensive, technically accurate career information materials are to be applauded. However, inspection of many such materials causes one to question the extent to which knowledge of teaching/learning variables (e.g., interests, abilities, values, motivation, learning style, readability) has been applied during development. Perhaps the lack of students' occupational knowlege, that was discussed in a pervious chapter, is related to the type of materials they use (or don't use as the case may be).

Surveys of Instructional Materials for Career Education

Since 1970 thousands of materials, both commercial and noncommercial have been produced. A number of surveys have been conducted, as follows, to catalog and evaluate these materials:

1. Search and Assessment of Commercial Career Education Materials. Peat, Marwick, Mitchell and Co., 1972.
2. Instructional Materials for Career Education: A Search and Assessment for the Office of Education. Peat, Marwick, Mitchell and Co., 1974.
3. Abstracts of Instructional Materials for Career Education. Bibliography Series No. 15, The Center for Vocational and Technical Education, 1972.
4. Supplement to Abstracts of Instructional Materials for Career Education. Bibliography Series No. 16, The Center for Vocational and Technical Education, 1973.
5. Review and Analysis of Sources of Occupational Information for Career Education. Information Series No. 89, The Center for Vocational and Technical Education, 1973.

6. EPIE Career Education Selection and Evaluation Tools: Volume 2, Analyses of Seven Hundred Prescreened Materials. EPIE Institute, 1975.

7. "The Status of Career Education as Reflected in Instructional and Reference Materials." In. D. H. McLaughlin, Career Education in the Public Schools 1974-75: A National Survey. Palo Alto, California: American Institutes for Research, May, 1976.

The latter study, designed to update previous surveys, was conducted by the American Institutes for Research as part of the Congressionally-mandated national survey of career education carried out in late 1975 and early 1976. Approximately 3,000 materials were screened, 2,900 were cataloged, and 670 commercial as well as a randomly drawn sample of 90 noncommercial materials were evaluated. The sheer number of materials identified by AIR is significant in recognition of the fact that materials developed prior to 1971 (the beginning of the "career education movement") were excluded from the survey. In addition to the impressive number of materials identified, other changes and characteristics can be observed: (a) the commercial publishing industry has undertaken a major role in materials development, (b) federal and state funding of career education research and development projects has resulted in a large number of locally-developed materials, (c) concern for providing students with "occupational information" has broadened to include attention to affective and coping skills as well (e.g., self awareness, values clarification, decision making, job seeking), (d) emphasis on printed materials has been augmented by the production of a wide variety of instructional formats and media. (e) materials are now available for the entire range of grade levels K-12 (materials are also available for adult and post-secondary levels although most surveys do not address these levels).

Representative examples of commercial career education and guidance materials are summarized in Tables 9, 10, 11. Access to non-commercial instructional materials is provided through a monthly catalog of Resources in Vocational Education published by the National Center for Research in Vocational Education. Each issue of the Vocational Guidance Quarterly also contains listings of "Current Career Literature". In an effort to disseminate "public domain" materials generated by federally

TABLE 9

A SAMPLING OF PRINTED MATTER

Name	Publisher	Description
Occupational Filing Systems		
Careerdex	Career Associates	1000+ card-file guide to sources of career information
Career Information Kit	Science Research Assoc.	600 pieces of current literature filed alphabetically by job families. Cross-referenced by Dewey Decimal System.
Career Kits and Career Opportunity Boxes	Houghton Mifflin	5 boxes of job information (100-125 cards each) relating to English, social studies, math, foreign languages, and science.
Career Skills Matrix	Westinghouse Learning Corporation	Entry-level jobs
The Job Box	Fearon Publishers	70 booklets relating to 7 job clusters for "special need" students.
Mini-Briefs	Occupational Awareness	Data regarding 1800 occupations related to school subject matter areas.
Occupational Library	Chronicle Guidance Publications, Inc.	Over 650 occupations by DOT classification. Supplemented by microfiche and viewdecks. An excellent resource.
Printed Volumes		
Concise Handbook of Occupations	Doubleday & Company	300+ jobs described.
Dictionary of Occupational Titles	U.S. Department of Labor	Described in detail elsewhere in in this volume. A primary resource.
Encyclopedia of Careers and Vocational Guidance (Hopke)	J.G. Ferguson Co.	650 occupations and 71 articles
Guide to Careers through College Majors and Guide to Careers through Vocational Training	Educational and Testing Service	As the title suggest.

Name	Publisher	Description
Handbook of Job Facts	Science Research Assoc.	300 major occupations.
Occupational Outlook Handbook and Occupational Quarterly	U.S. Department of	Trends and outlook in over 800 occupations and industries with a quarterly supplement. Another primary resource.
Printed Series		
Career Core Competencies: A Cooperative Education Approach	McGraw-Hill, Gregg	7 student text-workbooks, 7 filmstrips, 21 interview cassettes dealing with school and careers, decision-making, self-identity, communications at work, human relations at work, getting a job, keeping a job.
Popeye Career Awareness Book and Poster Library (E)	King Comic Books	Popeye negotiates the USOE clusters.
Career Education Books (E)	E.M. Hale and Co.	"Careers in" many occupations
Exploring Careers Series (E)	Williams Morrow and Co.	Many titles relating to careers.
Highway to Work and Play (E)	McKnight	Activity oriented awareness readings.
When You Grow Up (E)	Mini Productions	Cluster posters
Junior Guidance Booklets National Guidance Handbook Guidance Series Booklets New Rochester Occupational Reading Series	Science Research Assoc.	15 titles for Jr. High vocational and tech. ed. 41 paperbacks re guidance work world exploration for non-academic students
Pete Saves the Day Learn to Earn A Good Worker	Mafex	Text and workbook for practical employment skills Stories about work-study Workbook for trainable young adults
Deciding Decisions and Outcomes How to Decide: A Guide For Women	College Entrance Examination Board	Decision-making workbooks: Junior High School through adult
Decide for Yourself	Career Research and Advisory Centre	Decision-making workbook
Exploring Careers Series Vocations in Trades Series	William Morrow	A book for each cluster exploring trades occupations

Name	Publisher	Description
World of Work: Readings in Interpersonal Relationships	McGraw-Hill	50 short stories about jobs
Career Exploration and Planning Finding Your First Job Career Education Program	Houghton Mifflin	Text and workbook stressing self-awareness and understanding Workbook for job-hunting skills K-12 career education lesson plans
Catalyst: Career Opportunities Series, Educational Opportunities Series, Self-Guidance Series	Catalyst	Women and Careers
Messner Career Books	Julian Messner	"Your Career in" over 35 occupational areas
Finding a Job You Feel Good About	Argus Communications	Paperback and spirit matter program 7-adult
Careers Wheels How to Select a Private Vocational School How to Complete Job Applications Forms	American Personnel and Guidance Assoc.	Career Information via disc-dial Caveats and how-to's
Vocational Biographies	Vocational Biographies, Inc.	475 career areas in biographical form
Careers in Depth	Richards Rosen Press	Series of books on various careers

Source: Herr and Cramer, 1979, pp. 312-314.

TABLE 10

EXAMPLES OF CAREER GUIDANCE MEDIA

Name	Publisher	Description
Films		
Library of Career Counseling Films	Counselor Films, Inc.	Over 30 films and sound filmstrips on the work world
Bread and Butterflies	Agency for Instructional Television	15 TV programs on careers for 9-12 year olds
The Working Worlds	Olympus Publishing	13 films on career clusters
Project WERC Film Series	American Personnel and Guidance Association	World of work exploration
Vocational Films	Houghton Mifflin	10 films on general and specific aspects of work
Career Decision Making	Counseling Films	Behavioral Emphasis
Other Media		
Career Kits for Kids (E)	Encyclopedia Britannica Educational Corp.	Career awareness (6 occups.)
The Lollipop Dragon (E)	Singer Society for Visual Education, Inc.	World of work awareness
Targo Explores the World of Work (E)		6 filmstrips introducing job clusters
Job Opportunities Now		
Exploring Careers Series	Singer Society for Visual Education, Inc.	9-part program for exploring 15 clusters
Getting Your Money's Worh		Consumer awareness
Career Development for Children Project (E)	McKnight	Career awareness, work activities, self awareness
Introduction to Careers Series		Exploration of various careers
DUSO: Developing Understanding of self and others (E)	American Guidance Service, Inc.	Understanding social and emotional behavior
TAD: Toward Affective Development (E)		Psychological or affective education

Name	Publisher	Description
Compulearn Career Education Program	Random House	Elementary through adult individualized instruction in career education
Career Awareness Field Trips (E)	Guidance Associates	7 programs to simulate field trips to various industries
Career Values: What Really Matters to You?		Personal values and career decisions
Changing Work Ethic		Work attitudes and jobs
Jobs and Gender		Sex and career choice
Jobs for High School Students		Entry level jobs
The Paycheck Puzzle		Economic awareness
You and Your Job Interview		How-to-do-it
What You Should Know Before You Go to Work		Employer expectations
Choosing Your Career		Holland's typology and choice
Job Hunting: Where to Begin		sources of employment information
Career Discoveries Series		6 job groups explored
High School as a Tryout		Career exploration through high school
Focus on Self-Development (E)	Science Research Assoc.	Self-understanding and understanding of others and the environment
Job Family Series Booklets and Cassettes		Jobs and the clusters
Decision-Making for Career Development		Workbooks and Cassettes
WORK: Widening Occupational Roles Kit		Career Exploration
KEYS: Career Exploration Program		Career exploration related to interests
KNOW: Knowledge Needed to Obtain Work		64 transparencies related to selecting and applying for a job
Career Development: Education for Living	J.C. Penney	Exploration of work and work values
Preparing for an Interview	J.C. Penney	How-to-do-it
Career Decisions: Finding, Getting, and Keeping a Job		Influences on job choice
Career Clusters and the World of Work	AV Laboratory Educational Prop.	15 career clusters
Programmed Work Awareness Kit	Chronicle Guid.	33 weekly units

Name	**Publisher**	**Description**
Fascinating World of Work	National Career Consultants	16 titles in various occupations
Careertapes	Macmillan	72 people in different occupations talk about exploration, entry, and training in their fields
Career Survival Skills	C.E. Merrill	Understanding the use of resources for career and life planning
Target Vocational Transparencies	Mafex	How to fill out forms
Your're Hired	Classroom World Productions	Job-seeking behaviors
A Complete Learning System for Career Education	I(T) WORK(S), Inc.	12 monographs
The World of Work Series	Educational Resource Division of Educational Design, Inc.	3-part related to getting and keeping a job
Hard Choices: Strategies for Decision-Making	Center for Humanities	Decision-making skills
Decision-Making: Dealing with Crises		Techniques for crisis management
Career Lab	Westinghouse Learning Corporation	9 units related to careers
Career Awareness Series	Aims Instructional Media Services	Scope of work in various career areas
Career Guidance and Counseling Filmstrip-Materials	Charles W. Clark Co.	Many materials for career awareness and exploration
Me, Myself, and I (E)	EyeGate Instructional Materials	Elementary psychology course
Career Flashcards	CFI	Career Awareness
Magic Circle Programs (E)	Human Development Training Institute	Interpersonal Effectiveness Exercises
Real People at Work (E)	Changing Times Educational Service	Resource kits K-6
Career Directions: Planning for Career Decisions		4 units for career planning

Name	Publisher	Description
Non-Traditional Careers for Women	Pathescope Educational Films	Filmstrips and cassettes regarding women's work roles past and present
Vocational Decisions	QED Productions	Filmstrips and cassettes for vocational awareness
Career Awareness Laboratory	Singer Career Systems	Electronic media and gaming for career awareness
Careers in Focus	McGraw-Hill	Career exploration and self-discovery
Career Information Center	Hoffman Educational Systems	Career exploration related to interests
Job Lab 1 and Job Lab 2	Houghton Mifflin	Career exploration via job description cards for elementary and secondary

Source: Herr and Cramer, 1979, pp. 316-318.

TABLE 11

EXAMPLES OF CAREER GUIDANCE SIMULATIONS AND GAMES

Name	Publisher	Description
Career Insights and Self-Awareness Games (E)	Houghton Mifflin	Insight and awareness
EXPO 10: Exploring Career Interests (E)	Science Research	Occupational exploration
Job Experience Kits		20 occupations for work simulation
Grow Power: A Decision-Making and Personality Development Game (E)	Educational Activities	Physical, mental, social, and emotional growth awareness
Steady Job: A Vocational Orientation Game	Mafex	Attitudes and behavior related to employability
Generation Rap: The Parents and Kids Game	Spinnaker	Parent-child interaction
Scope Visuals 16: Career Crosswords	Scholastic Books	Careers through crossword puzzles
Life Career	Bobbs-Merrill	Career planning and decision-making
Game of Life	Milton Bradley Co.	Decision-making: 2-8 players
COMPULEARN	U.S. Office of Education	Computer simulation
Career Games	E.N. Chapman	Career search and decision-making for grades 8-13
Careers	Parker Brothers	8 occupations and success
Community Decisions Games	Education Ventures	Variety of decision-making situations
Edventure II: Career Guidance Game	Abt Associates	20 years in the future and choice in the educational marketplace
Edventure Lifelong Learning Simulation		Educational and work choices in the future
The Job Game	Employment Training Corp.	Finding jobs
Career Exploration Games	Educational Media Corp.	Four career exploration strategies

Source: Herr and Cramer, 1979, p. 320.

funded projects, the U.S. Office of Career Education has awarded a contract to Health-Education-Research, Inc. This company produces on a subscription basis, a monthly newsletter (Career Education Service News) and periodic packets of teacher-oriented lesson plans.

Combating Race and Sex Bias

The previously reported AIR survey of career education instructional materials[71] found considerable race and sex bias. For commercial materials, 51 percent contained a few (one or two) instances of race bias, while 7 percent contained extensive race bias. The situation was substantially worse with sex bias, 47 percent reflecting some bias and 29 percent reflecting extensive bias. The average material contained a few positive references to ethnic minority groups and females, but approxiamtely 25 percent of all materials made reference only to white males. For the sample of noncommercial materials, 70 percent were found to be free of race bias and 51 percent were found to be free of sex bias.

Concern to combat race and sex bias prompted EPIE Institute to include a chapter on each in its NIE supported publication on career education instructional materials.[72] These are excellent discussions on how to detect race and sex bias and how to counteract their effects in the classroom. Also included are checklists to be used in evaluating instructional materials.

In a 1977 publication entitled Sex Fairness In Career Education,[73] three categories of materials and resources are provided to aid in eliminating sex stereotyping and sex bias. These materials are displayed in Tables 12, 13, and 14. The number of resource and instructional materials for eliminating race sterotyping and bias appears to be significantly less than those available for eliminating sex stereotyping and bias.

Career Information for Special Groups

The AIR survey[74] of instructional materials found about 10 percent of commercial materials and 5 percent of noncommercial materials addressed to the needs of "special populations" (i.e., culturally different, ethnic, females,

TABLE 12

RESOURCES FOR SEX PAIR MATERIALS

Author	Title	Yr. of Pub.	Major Topics	Availability
American Association of School Administrators	Sex Equality in Educational Materials	1975	Assessment techniques, guidelines for sex fair language usage	American Association of School Administrators 1801 N. Moore Street Arlington, VA 22209 $2.50
Birk, Janice M., Cooper, Jackie, and Tanney, Mary Faith	Racial and Sex-Role Stereotyping in Career Information	1973	Slide-tape presentation, assessment instrument, data on information materials	Janice M. Birk University of Maryland Counseling Center Shoemaker Building College Park, MD 20742
Houghton Mifflin	Avoiding Stereotypes: Principles and Applications	1976	Guidelines for sex fairness in materials, including specific sections on "roles and activities" and "language"	Houghton Mifflin Boston, MA
Ivins, Linda G.	Inservice Teacher Awareness/ Evaluation Skills	forthcoming (late 1977)	Materials to promote skills in the evaluation of textbooks and program materials and in the development of non-sexist curriculum	Ms. Linda G. Ivins YWCA of Oahu University Branch 1820 University Avenue Honolulu, Hawaii 96822
Macmillan	Guidelines for Creating Positive Sexual and Racial Images in Educational Materials	1975	Specific guidelines for teachers' materials and texts in a variety of content areas	Macmillan New York, NY

TABLE 12

RESOURCES FOR SEX PAIR MATERIALS

Author	Title	Yr. of Pub.	Major Topics	Availability
Women on Words and Images	Guidelines for Sex-Fair Vocational Education Materials	forthcoming (Sept. 1977)	Includes checklist for evaluating sex bias in vocational education materials and guidelines for the creative use of sex-biased materials	Women on Words and Images P.O. Box 2163 Princeton, NJ 08540

Source: Peterson and Vetter, 1977 p. 29.

TABLE 13

MATERIALS FOR USE WITH STUDENTS

Author	Title	Yr. of Pub.	Type	Major Topics	Availability
Ahlum, Carol and Fralley, Jackie	Feminist Resources for Schools and Colleges: A Guide to Curricular Materials	1975	Bibliography of Curricular Materials	Sections on The Student, The Teacher, The Counselor, Health and Home Ecomonics Kits and Games	Feminist Press College at Old Westbury Box 334 Old Westbury, NY 11568
Cally Curtis Company	Twelve Like You	1975	Audiovisual, 16 mm film, 15 minutes	Twelve "career women" discuss their ideas and experiences	The Cally Curtis Company 1111 N. Las Palmas Ave. Hollywood, CA 90038
Center for Equity Career Education	Equity Career Education Curriculum Guide		Curriculum Guide-Grades 3, 6, 8, &, 10	Lessons, learning activities, evaluation suggestions and recommended materials	Maple Heights City School District The Center for Equity Career Education 5500 Clement Drive Maple Heights, OH 44137
Cornerstone Productions	Looking at Tomorrow: What Will You Choose?	1975	Audiovisual, 16 mm film, 16 minutes	Young women shown working in a range of occupations from bricklayer to violin maker	Cornerstone Productions 6087 Sunset Blvd. Suite 408 Hollywood, CA 90028
Feminists Northwest	Planning for Free Lives: Curriculum Materials for Combating Sex Stereotyping in Home Economics, Family Living, and Career Awareness Courses	1975	Curriculum materials	Career Awareness, Family Living, Home Economics	Feminists Northwest 5038 Nicklas Place, N.E. Seattle, WA 98105 $3.50

Author	Title	Yr. of Pub.	Type	Major Topics	Availability
Guidance Associates	Women Today	1974	Audiovisual, filmstrip	Key issues of sex fairness are defined and explored	Guidance Associates 757 3rd Avenue New York, NY 10017
Kane, Irene, Copi, Tom and Cade, Cathy	People at Work	1975	Audiovisual (photographs)	20 b/w photos of men and women in non-traditional occupations	Change for Children 2588 Mission Street No. 226 San Francisco, CA 94110 $6.00
Leib, Prudence	Sex, Roles: Past, Present and Future	1975	Bibliography	Guide to simulations games, and activities	The Population Institute Organization Liaison Division 110 Maryland Ave., N.E. Washington, D.C. 20002 $.50
McClure, Gail T.	Women in Science and Technology: Careers for Today and Tomorrow	1976	Individual reading or group use	Specific information about careers in science and technology	The American College Testing Program P.O. Box 168 Iowa City, IA 52240 $1.50
Medsger, Betty	Women at Work	1975	Individual reading or group use	Women at work in 188 different occupations, including many non-traditional occupations, photographs and commentary	Sheed and Ward, Inc. New York $7.95
Minneapolis Board of Education	Eliminating Sex Bia in Education		Seconday level lesson plans	19 topics, including Career and Family Decisions, Job Characteristics, Status of Careers, and Life Cycles	Board of Education Special School District #1 807 N.E. Broadway Minneapolis, MN 55413

Author	Title	Yr. of Pub.	Type	Major Topics	Availability
Mitchell, Joyce Slayton	I Can Be Anything: Careers and Colleges for Young Women	1975	Individual reading or group use	Descriptions of career areas, specific information about which schools have most women in nontraditional areas	College Board Publication Orders Box 2815 Princeton, NJ 08540 $6.50 hardcover $4.50 paperback
Mitchell, Joyce Slayton	Free to Choose: Decision Making for Young Men	1976	Individual reading or group use		Delacorte Press New York $7.95
National Association of Women in Construction	Hard Hats ... High Heels	1972	Audiovisual 16mm film, 10 minutes	The roles women play in the construction industry	National Association of Women in Construction Washington, D.C. Chapter 5340 Odell Road Beltville, MD 20705
Pathescope Educational Films, Inc.	Non-Traditional Careers for Women	1975	Audiovisual, 2 filmstrips	Women in non-traditional jobs, historically and currently	Pathescope Educational Films, Inc. 71 Weyman Avenue New Rochelle, NY 10802
Research and Information Center	Elimination Sex Discrimination in Schools: A Source Book	1975	Handbook	Sections on the Importannce of Non-Sexist Language, Sex Bias in Instrutctional Materials, Sex Bias in High School Guidance and Counseling	Research and Information Center North Carolina Department of Public Instruction Raleigh, NC
Resrouce Center on Sex Roles in Education	Today's Changing Roles: An Approach to Nonsexist	1974	Lessons, with behavioral objectives, concepts, and student materials	Sections on awareness of role stereotypes; attitudes, values choices; Where Will I be In Five Years?	Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education National Foundation for the Improvement of Education 1201 16th Street, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20036 $3.00

Author	Title	Yr. of Pub.	Type	Major Topics	Availability
Schloat Productions	Masculinity	1974	Audiovisual, 4 filmstrips	Assumption, myths, and stereotypes about men and masculinity, new options and directions	Schloat Productions 150 White Plains Road Tarrytown, NY 10591
Scholz, Nelle T., Sosebee, Judith, and Miller, Gordon P.	How to Decide: A Guide for Women	1975	Workbook	Sections on: who are you? What do you need to know? How do you take action?	College Board Publications Orders Box 2815 Princeton, NY 08540 $5.95
Scott, Jeanne and Rabin, Maureen	Vocational Readiness Package		Curriculum Unit	Simulation games and role playing-women in marriage and careers today	YWCA 1215 Lodi Place Los Angeles, CA 900 $25.00
Seed, Sandra	Saturday's Child	1974	Individual reading or group use	Interview with and photographs of 36 women on their jobs	Bantam Books New York $1.25 paperback
Vetter, Louise and Sethney, Barbara J.	Planning Ahead for the World of Work	1975	Curriculum Unit	Looking Ahead to Your Occupation, Working Women ... Who Are They? What Is My Future?	Center for Vocational Education 1960 Kenny Road Columbus, OH 43210 Teacher manual $2.50 Student Materials $1.50 Complete set, including transparency masters transparency maste $4.50

Source: Peterson and Vetter, 1977, pp. 30-33.

TABLE 14

INSERVICE EDUCATION RESOURCES

Author	Title	Yr. of Pub.	Major Topics	Availability
Bem, Sandra L. and Bem, Daryl J.	Training the Woman To Know Her Place: The Social Antecedents of Women in the World of Work	1975	Socialization practices and current realities for women and work	Pennsylvania Department of Education Division of Pupil Personnel Services Box 911 Harrisburg, PA 17126
Calabrese, Marylyn E.	Public School Districts Comprehensive Package	Forthcoming	Facilitation packets for implementing a systems approach for eliminating sex discrimination in the institutional structure, policies, and operations of a public school district	Ms. Marylyn E. Calabrese Tredyffrin/East Town School District 507 Howellville Road Berwyn, PA 19312
Clark, Susan	Inservice Teacher Training Modules Elementary/Secondary Levels	Forthcoming	Modules to eliminate elements of sex role role socialization from the elementary/secondary levels	Ms. Susan Clark Hope School District 1-A 117 East 2nd Street Hope, AR 71801
Ellis Associates Inc.	Expanding Nontraditional Opportunities in Vocational Education	1977	Three Inservice training packages: Approaches Expanding Nontraditional Opportunities in Vocational Ecucation: Barriers to Expanding Nontraditional Opportunities for Vocational Education Students; and Legislation Addressing Equal Opportunity in Vocational Education and Employment	Ellis Associates, Inc. P.O. Box 466 College Park, MD. 20740

Author	Title	Yr. of Pub.	Major Topics	Availability
Emma Willard Task Force on Education	"Joan and Paul" in Sexism in Education	1973	Teaching guide for a role-playing approach to vocational counseling; Curriculum planning; Career counseling; Male-female relationships: Job finding; Raising children	Box 14220 University Station Minneapolis, MN 55408 $3.50
Farmer, Helen S. and Backer, Thomas	New Career Options for Woman	Forthcoming (1977)	Three part series: A Counselor's Source book, Things Are Looking Up, and Selected Annotated Bibliography	Human Sciences Press 72 Fifth Avenue New York, NY 10011
Feminists Northwest	Whatever Happened to Debbie Kraft?	1975	Awareness game for educators, counselors, students and parents	Feminists Northwest 5038 Nicklas Place, N.E., Seattle, WA 98105 $.50
House, Elaine and Katzell, Mildred E. (eds.)	Facilitating Career Development for Girls and Women	1975	Report of National Vocational Guidance Association Conference on guidance and women	American Personnel and Guidance Association Publication Sales 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20009
Maisel, Mary Lou	Seventh/Eighth/ Grade/ Middle Pupils Teacher Training Resource Guide	Forthcoming	Sex fair learning in career education, career education resource guide	Mrs. Mary Lou Maisel Waterville Board of Education Pleasant Street Waterville, ME 04901
New Hampshire Department of Education	Multi-Media Kit		Manual for organizing and conducting workshops with 100 items	SEGO PROJECT American Personnel and Guidance Association 1607 New Hampshire Ave., N.W. Washington, D.C. 20009

Author	Title	Yr. of Pub.	Major Topics	Availability
Smith, Walter S.	Teacher Training Package Preservice/ Inservice Elementary Level	Forthcoming	Modules and a/v's on behavior and attitudes of teachers, sex role stereotyping awareness, and techniques to combat problems of sex role stereotyping	Dr. Walter S. Smith University of Kansas School of Education Department of Curriculum and Instruction Bailey Hall Lawrence, KS 66045
Stebgins, Linda B., Amers, Nancy L. and Rhodes, Ilana	Sex Fairness in Career Guidance: A Learning Kit	1975	Orientation to sex fairness; Recommednations for a comprehensive sex-fair career guidance program; Guidelines and recommendations for sex-fair use of career interest inventories; Resource guide. Includes supplementary materials: pre- and post-assessment techniques; Spirit masters; Transcripts of counselor-client interactions; Role play scenarios; Audiotape of four counseling interviews	Abt Publications 55 Wheeler St. Cambridge, MA 02139 $15.00

Source: Peterson and Vetter, 1977, pp. 34-36.

gifted and talented, incarcerated, mentally handicapped, physically handicapped, problem reader and senior citizen). Not surprising, a greater proportion of noncommercial materials have been developed for mentally and physically handicapped than have commercial materials. Commercial materials address the needs of females more than any other special population. Only a handful of materials were identified for culturally different, ethnic and problem reader populations. Of those materials developed for special populations, they tended to receive "average" ratings in terms of presence of objectives and learner performance evaluation.

Since completion of the AIR survey in 1975, a substantial number of texts and reference materials have been written on career and vocational education for "special needs students":

1. Appleby, J.A. Training Programs and Placement Services. Salt Lake City: Olympus Publishing Company, 1978.
2. Bailey, L.J. (ED) A Teacher's Handbook on Career Development for Students with Special Needs: Grades K-12. Springfield, Illinois: Illinois Office of Education, 1977, 250 pp.
3. Brolin, D.E. and Kokaska, C.J. Career Education for Handicapped Children and Youth. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1979.
4. Brolin, D.C., McKay, D.J. and West, L.L. Trainer's Guide to Life Centered Career Education. Reston. Virginia: The Council for Exceptional Children, 1978.
5. Cook, P.L., Dahl, P.R. and Gale, M.A. Vocational Opportunities. Salt Lake City: Olympus Publishing Company, 1978.
6. Dahl, P.R., Appleby, J.A. and Lipe, D. Mainstreaming Guidebook for Vocational Educators. Salt Lake City: Olympus Publishing Company, 1978.
7. Gardner, D.C. and Warren, S.A. Careers and Disabilities: A Career Education Approach. Stamford, Connecticut: Greylock Publishers, 1978.
8. Gillet, P. Career Education for Children with Learning Disabilities. San Rafael, California: Academic Therapy Publications, 1978.

9. Hoyt, K.B. Career Ecucation for Special Populations. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Career Education, 1976. 26 pp. (ED 132 428).

10. Lutz, R.J. and Phelps. L.A. Career Exploration and Preparation for the Special Needs Learner. Rockleigh, New Jersey: Allyn and Bacon, 1977.

11. Vocational education - and end to dependency. Common Sense from Closer Look, Newsletter published by the Parents' Campaign for Handicapped Children and Youth, Summer 1978, 12 pp.

12. Vocational Education of Handicapped Students: A Guide for Policy Development. Reston, Virginia: The Council for Exceptional Children, 1978.

13. Wall, J.E. (Ed) Vocational Education for Special Groups: Yearbook 6. Washington, D.C.: American Vocational Association, 1976.

Text and reference materials of this type generally precede the development of student instructional materials. The writer's knowledge of instructional materials for career and vocational education leads him to believe that a greater proportion of materials for special populations now exist than was the case at the time of the AIR survey.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Specific findings and conclusions related to the various policy issues are integrated into the discussion of each chapter. As a result, only major conclusions are provided here: (a) Learning about and preparing for work in each of its various forms (vocational education, career guidance and counseling, career education, employment and training) has become a significant theme in education at all age levels. Differences among the various professional fields appear minimal in relation to their shared commonalities. The future of education-work programs is a subject for considerable optimism. (b) The conduct of past and present education-work programs has provided insight into program strategies and principles that work successfully. A *pot pourri* of model programs have been developed that are potentially replicable in a variety of other settings. Particularly impressive is the number of successful programs in career education that have been developed during its relatively short life span. (c) A number of anomalies characterize the education-work literature for youth: work attitudes and values of youth are more positive than popular wisdom suggests; the desire of youth for assistance with career planning is much greater than the level of assistance actually received; parental interest in and support for education-work programs appear to be greater than that expressed by teachers and other educationists. Given the needs that exist, it is heartening that a body of research is accumulating to suggest that education-work concepts, attitudes and skills can and are being successfully taught. (d) The recently established NOICC-SOICC network holds the promise of being able to accomplish important breakthroughs in proving occupational information to youth. (e) Education-work instructional materials are taking on whole new character. Particularly noteworthy is the attention given to a broad range of concepts, attitudes and skills (as opposed to just occupational information), and the development of a wide variety of meadia and other formats (as opposed to just printed material). Federally-produced occupational information appears bland in relation to the better examples of commercially produced materials. The elimination of race and sex bias is a conscious concern of curriculum theorists and is gradually being reflected in improved materials.

The previous chapters contain many specific conclusions and implications for additional research. Following are eight major recommendations that Youthwork should consider as it works toward the long-range goal of reducing youth unemployment and other related education-work transistion problems.

1. Short projects of the type carried out under the present contract suffer from having to address too many broad issues in too little time. Future contractual activities should concentrate on doing more thorough and exhaustive literautre reviews on specific topical areas like jobseeking skills, work attitudes and values, the role of counselors in youth employment and training programs, and the like.

2. Writers of literature reviews should be provided more time in completing work assignments. Unavoidable delays are often encountered in ordering materials for ERIC or other agencies and publishers, and in corresponding with project directors about on-going research. Literature reviews that rely only on conventional sources and material "on the shelf" are unduly limited. Serendipity is a characteristic of research that should be encouraged, not stifled.

3. Some type of comprehensive theory-building model should be developed to provide direction for literature reviews and to aid in monitoring and up-dating the state of the art as it evolves. One approach might be to develop research summaries on various constructs of the type provided by Crites in his classic text on Vocational Psychology.[75] Another useful approach worth considering is that taken in the USOE policy paper on career education in which "basic concept assumptions" and "programmatic assumptions" have been identified.[76] For example, the following programmatic assumption, "Good work habits and positive attitudes toward work can be taught effectively to most individuals. Assimilation of such knowledge is most effective if begun in the early childhood years." provides a point of departure for examining past theory and research as well as to suggest designs for future empirical research.

4. What is the role of literature reviewers once a paper has been completed? By virtue of the experience gained in conducting a review, such persons become potentially valuable resources in planning next steps. Written recommendations are only one means of sharing knowledge gained. Interpersonal dialogue is another means that should be provided for. Literature reviewers should be involved in formal "debriefings" and "brainstorming" activities with federal policy-makers in formulating future research agendas.

5. The lack of commonly understood and applied terms and concepts is an impediment to improved communications in the various education-work fields. The federal government should adopt a glossary of career development concepts of the type proposed by Super.[77] The term "career-type work" used in Toward a Federal Policy on Education and Work[78] is an example of a phrase that detracts from efforts by Super and others to develop a glossary of constructs linked to psychological theory. Careers are person-centered and not occupation or work centered.

6. Future research and programmatic efforts for youth should continue to distinguish among different clientele and their different educational and occupational needs. Several examples will illustrate this. In-school youth in the process of formulating future career goals have much different needs than out-of-school youth looking for a specific job. Youth wanting a job while attending college have much different needs than a high school dropout wanting a job to help support self and family. The role of career information must necessarily differ from various clientele. The concept of learning style that is currently attracting attention in the national press should be investigated in relation to its implications for education-work programs.

7. The commercial publishing industry has produced some impressive examples of education-work instructional materials. Publishers have a role to play in advancing the implementation of education-work programs that has not been given adequate consideration. This is a subject having far-reaching implications for policy and programming. It may be, for example, that the federal government should concentrate its efforts on producing career information for handicapped learners and other special groups and leave to

private enterprise the development of materials for more conventional groups, as they currently do in other areas of education.

8. Plans should be developed now for synthesizing and disseminating knowledge gained from the operation of current Youthwork and other YEDPA-CETA funded demonstration projects.

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APPENDIX A

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APPENDIX B

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF DOCUMENTS FROM APPENDIX A RELATED TO FOCUS AREA ISSUES

YEDPA Focus: The Tennessee Transition. Site Report No. 1. VocEd, 1979, 54 (2), 47-48. (EJ 199 938).

This first in a series highlighting Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977 (YEDPA) programs describes a guidance and placement program in Williamson County, Tennessee, to ease students' transition from school to work through career counselling, job training at Yates Vocational Center, job placement, and community liaison services.

The States as Brokers for Federal Jobs Programs. VocEd, 1978, 53 (6), 52-54. (EJ 191 935).

Discusses how labor and education can work together to help young people train for jobs, hold jobs, and continue their education. Focus is on state agencies coordinating provisions of the Youth Employment Demonstration Projects Act of 1977 and CETA/YEDPA programs. (MF)

Plenty of Work: Not Enough Jobs. VocEd, 1978, 53 (6), 48-51. (EJ 191 934).

The president of the New York Fashion Institute of Technology says that vocational education should prepare people for always-abundant work, either on their own or in organizations, and not for jobs that will always be scarce. He suggests some approaches for linking vocational education and work. (MF)

A National Policy for Job Creation and Youth Development. VocEd, 1978, 53 (6), 43-47. (EJ 191 933).

The author presents an 18-point action plan to develop youth's job skills and job opportunities. He calls for a comprehensive youth development policy including job stimulation, mastery of basic competencies and employability skills, and the establishment of local-state-federal youth development councils. (MF)

Unemployment and the Entitled Worker: Job Entitlement and Radical Political Attitudes Among the Youthful Unemployed. (Social Problems, 1978, 26 (1), 26-37. (EJ 191 743).

The growing atmosphere of entitlement belief among the youthful unemployed has proved conducive to radical ideologies. Findings indicate that young, unemployed workers tend to have a universalistic, rather than an individualistic attitude towards job entitlement. (WI)

Michigan Puts the Unemployed to WORC. Parks and Recreation, 1978, 13 (5), 47, 67. (EJ 189 530).

In an attempt to alleviate problems stemming from high youth unemployment and dwindling operation and maintenance funds for public lands, the Michigan legislature instituted the Work Opportunity Resources Corps (WORC), a successful project that put the unemployed to work doing construction, clean up, and rehabilitation work for public parks and facilities. (DS)

NUL Youth Programs. Urban League Review, 1977, 3 (1), 46-56. (EJ 182 540).

This article indicates some of the ways in which the National Urban League has dealt with the problem of minority youth. These ways include programs such as the Street Academy Program, student internship programs, and the Balck Executive Exchange Program, a conference on youth employment, and affiliation with other programs. (Author/AM)

Education-Work Council: The Puerto Rican Experience. Community and Junior College Journal, 1978, 48 (5), 22-3. (EJ 178 081).

Describes the activities of the Education-Work Council at Bayamon Regional College (Puerto Rico), one of six colleges participating in a demonstration program aimed at addressing the problems of unemployed youth. (LH)

Public Policy to Improvie the Employability of Young People. Educational Planning, 1977, 4 (2), 94-105. (EJ 177 614).

Compares a state program to deal with youth unemployment, the Ontario Career Action Program, with cooperative education programs generally. (Author/IRT)

The Dimensions of Youth Unemployment. Journal of Employment Counselling, 1978, 15 (1), 3-27. (EJ 177 175).

This article explores the lack of job skills and the changing attitudes of youth toward work as central contributors to youth unemployment. (Author/MFD)

There are Jobs for Youth in Des Moines. American Vocational Journal, 1977, 52 (8), 48, 50, 56. (EJ 169 174).

The history of Des Moines' Career Placement Center is described and three categories of its year-round service are explained: odd-job employment through the Rent-A-Kid program, regular part-time employment for students, and permanent employment for graduates. The center's relationship with the school district's work experience and co-op programs is also discussed. (BM)

Proven Formula for Employing Youth: 70001. Worklife, 1977, 2 (10), 10-13. (EJ 167 231).

"70001 Ltd." is a national nonprofit organization which offers unemployed dropouts a way to complete high school without returning to the public school classroom and also to get employment in retail sales occupations. Its centers, frequently located in shopping centers, provide a business rather than school environment. (MF)

YCC: A Recipe for Youth Development. Conservationist, 1977, 32 (3), 11-12. (EJ 166 570).

A YCC project to improve and finish a complete outdoor education center is described. The program and objectives are outlined. Methods of evaluating the students experiences are listed. Testing showed that the students attitudes toward themselves, peers, and the environment became more positive. (AJ)

Helping the Elderly Help Themselves. Journal of Home Economics, 1977, 69 (4), 18-20. (EJ 165 430).

A private-sector solution to the problems of the elderly is HomeCall, Inc. Using the home management approach, the corporation allows the aging to remain in their homes and buy needed services for home maintenance from high school and college age persons.

Evaluating Programs for Placing Youth in Jobs. Journal of Vocational Education Research, 1977, 2 (1), 1-15. (EJ 165 423).

A study to evaluate the effectiveness of three school-based job placement programs in Pennsylvania secondary area vocational-technical schools indicated that a formalized job placement system can increase the probability of employment for graduates and school leavers. Detailed results are presented in narrative and tabular form. (MF)

A Universal Youth Service. Social Policy, 1977, 7 (4), 43-6. (EJ 161 410).

Examines the Program for Local Service (PLS), which began in 1943 in the Seattle area. Essentially, the program provided for youth volunteers to serve in approved public or nonprofit organizations. (Author/AM)

Education, Work and the Young. School Shop, 1977, 36 (7), 27-29. (EJ 154 561).

A U.S. Office of Education (USOE) study presents a mixed picture on efforts of secondary schools to prepare adolescents for the world of work. (Editor)

LEAP, in the Right Direction. Worklife, 1976, 1 (8), 8-13. (EJ 142 451).

The National Urban League's LEAP program has opened career opportunities for nearly 17,000 minority men and women in nine years. Aimed at getting minority groups into apprenticeships in the building and construction unions nationwide, LEAP staff recruits youth at high school career days and in less traditional places. (AJ)

It's Summer Job Time Again. Worklife, 1976, 1 (5), 29-32. (EJ 137 517).

A sampling of innovative summer jobs funded through the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) for economically disadvantaged youth, 14-21 years of age, is presented. (LH)

Education for the World of Work. Fortune, 1975, 92 (4), 124-9, 184, 188, 193. (EJ 125 412).

Some of today's teenage unemployment can be blamed on poor connections between schooling and jobs. In many communities businessmen are collaborating with educators to bring the two worlds closer together. In the first of a series of articles, the author cites specific programs and events linking the two worlds. (Author/BP)

We Need a "Rite of Passage" Between School and Work. Occupational Outlook Quarterly, 1975, 19 (2), 31-4. (EJ 118 863).

A former Under Secretary of Labor examines some of the reasons why young people have difficulty in making the transtion from student to worker. The Department of Labor has responded by providing ten initial grants averaging $300,000, during 1974-75 to stimulate the creation of occupational information systems in ten selected states. (Author/ED)

Firm Support for Summer Jobs. Manpower, 1975, 7 (4), 29-31. (EJ 115 520).

The Ralston Purina Company of St. Louis pays community agencies to place youth in summer jobs. (BP)

Working Youths: Select Findings from an Exploratory Study. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 1974, 3 (1), 7-16. (EJ 105 031).

The purpose of this study was to learn more specific research questions and hypotheses for more rigorous research about the life situation and personal experiences of youths who work. 272 youths were interviewed. Select findings from 51 cases are presented on the youth's orientation to their future. (Author/RC).

TEP: A Constructive Summer Activity. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1974, 23 (1), 77-79. (EJ 103 890).

A summer employment program was set up for low-income teenagers to earn spending money while learning a little about the world of work. (Author)

Middle/Junior High School Counselors' Corner. Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, 1974, 8 (4), 210-312. (EJ 097 671).

This article provides a brief description of the Sun Valley-Las Casitas (Colorado) Youth Employment program. This program was developed in response to increasing anti-social activity among Chicano youths. A brief evaluation of the program is included. (RWP)

Employer-School Partnerships. New Generation, 1973, 55 (2&3), 23-36. (EJ 097 201).

Surveys school-employer and cooperative education programs, past and present. (Author/SB)

Five Company Programs. New Generation, 1973, 55 (2&3), 8-19. (EJ 097 199).

This survey of programs operated by five large New York City area employers was undertaken to discover what can be effectively done to ease the critical transition from school to work--or from school to unemployment to work--in good times and bad. (Author)

An Action Learning Program that Provides a Change. NASSP Bulletin, 1974, 58 (380), 30-6. (EJ 093 834).

Answers to the questions most commonly asked about Action Learning are beginning to be answered by a test project in Seattle. This article provides insight into what's happening. (Editor)

ERIC Abstracts

Youth Programs Models and Innovations. Washington, D.C. Office of Youth programs, 1979. (ED 169 383).

This report describes twenty federally funded youth employment program models and innovations. Each four-page description includes the following: program title, name of operating agency, project costs, source of funds, number of participants, unique program features, duration of grant, major program goals and objectives, prime sponsor, contact person, program description, administrative and staffing requirements, recruitment/client profile, outcomes to date, problems/progress, implementation hints, and general comments. Some representative program titles are the following: Coordinated Vocational Academic Education, Out-of-School Youth Cooperative Training Program, City Youth Employment Program, Restructuring Paramedical Occupations, Housing Authority Management Aide, Job Preparation Program, Training and Work Experience Project, and Placement Services for the Handicapped. (EM)

The Effectiveness of the Washington Occupation Information Service (WOIS) as a Career Guidance Instrument for Youth Employment Training Program (YETP) Clients: An Evaluation of Training and Implementation in 21 Washington State Comprehensive Employment Training Act (CETA) Sites. Washington University, Seattle. Educational Assessment Center, 1978. (ED 169 220).

An evaluation was conducted to determine the usefulness and effectiveness of the Washington Occupation Information Service (WOIS) materials and training workshops. Eighty-five Youth Employment and Training Project (YETP) counselors and administrators from twenty-one Comprehensive Employment Training Act (CETA) sites throughout Washington participated in the workshops, which were held at eight locations. While at the workshops, the participants assessed their effectiveness through skills tests, direct observations, ratings, and subsequently, through telephone interviews. Overall, the training seminars were judged to be successful, although trainees at three locations did not achieve passing ratings on the post tests. The telephone interviews also included questions on the use and effectiveness of WOIS materials. Two of the twenty-one sites were not using the materials at all. Eighty-nine percent of those commented positively about WOIS. The, YETP clients at all sites were asked to complete forms asessing the WOIS materials. Only six sites returned the questionnaires, and their results showed client satisfaction to be very high. It was found that the degree of successfulness of WOIS varied from site to site due to the following factors: (1) lack of planning time; (2) lack of interest in WOIS by site personnel; (3) complexity and reading level of materials beyond clients' scope; and (4) lack of coordination of WOIS with other training materials. (ELG)

A Comprehensive Career Development Employability, Vocational, and Coping Skills Training Program for YETP/SPEDY Youth in the Genesee Intermediate School District. Executive Summary. Final Report. Flint, Michigan, Vocational Education and Career Development Services, 1978. (ED 167 841).

A CETA Youth Project was designed to provide training in vocational awareness, self-awareness, coping skills, job skills, employability skills, career planning, and remedial reading. Over 500 youths between 14-21 were involved and many received computer interactional career training in coordination with an individualized career class. Significant gains were reported in career exploration, decision making and career planning. Self-report data of the youth confirmed that they were definitely helped in deciding what they wanted to do in their futures. A 75% increase in the level of coping skills for school and work settings was found as a result of a systematic delivery of twelve one-hour modules. A similar gain was found in the ability of youth to identify job openings, develop resumes, and take interviews. Two hundred of the five hundred received 90 hours of vocational training in one of eight different programs. Instructors' ratings of their learnings indicated a marked improvement. An increase in reading levels resulted from the application of a remedial training conducted on an individual basis and at a work setting as opposed to an academic setting. Work experiences provided youth with income to help keep them in school and job experiences, which will help prepare them for future employment. (The complex management system of the project is described, along with recommendations for improvements. Data tables are appended.) (Author/CT)

Community Education-Work Councils and CETA-School Collaboration under YEDPA. Prepared for the Work-Education Consortium Conferences on Enhancing Education-Work Transitions for Youth: The Community Collaboration Approach. Washington, D.C., 1978. (ED 167 768).

This report reviews legislatively mandated linkages between prime sponsors and local education agencies (LEAS) in providing employment, education, and training for youth. The legislation discussed includes (1) the 1977 youth employment and demonstration projects act (YEDPA), (2) the young adult conservation corps, (3) the youth incentive entitlement pilot projects, (4) the youth community conservation and improvement projects, and (5) the youth employment and training program. Senate and house bills for continuation and revision of the comprehensive employment and training amendments (CETA) of 1978, which incorporates YEDPA, are discussed. Highlights are presented from a series of department of Health, Education and Welfare/Department of Labor workshops for prime sponsors and representatives of LEAS to provide information and to encourage collaboration on projects authorized under YEDPA. Participants's view on implementing collaboration, career development, work experience, and academic credit are reported. Various examples are provided to demonstrate the work-education consortium council's involvement in assisting CETA/LEA collaboration, involvement with LEAS and involvement with CETA prime sponsors. The appendix contains relevant sections of Title IV--Youth Programs of the Comprehensive and Training Amendments of 1978. (CSS)

Towards Work-Education Collaboration: Revitalizing an American Tradition. Washington, D.C.; Columbus, Ohio. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1979. (ED 166 417).

Communicty Work-Education Councils are supplying "grass roots" citizen involvement in policymaking on transitional services for youth moving from school to work. Since 1977, almost 1,000 people in thirty-three communities have participated in local work-education councils affiliated with the national work -education consortium. On the average, the councils consist of twenty-three members representing community leaders and program directors. The success of such collaborative efforts depends on the presence of the following fundamentals: leadership, representation, responsibility, understanding, resources, and independence to assess their own needs, priorities, ability to initiate actions, and proper timing for changes. Unlike the needs and priorities of federal and state programs which are mandated, those of local councils are selected to suit their specific situations, and vary from emphasis on data collection (to aid in developing local awareness and understanding of youth transition issues) to the provision of accurate and up-to-date career information for youth. Eight of the thirty-three councils represent rural areas and, with the assistance of the national manpower institute, have formulated a charter of ten major propositions to improve rural youth transition. As communities, in general, build on this charter and the other fundamentals of collaboration, they will achieve greater influence in shaping education-and-work policy for youth transition. (ELG)

Youth Unemployment: Solving the Problem. Washington, D.C., 1978. (ED 164 874).

This multi-authored book concentrates on how vocational education can help alleviate youth unemployment. G. Swanson reviews the role of vocational education in the nation's employment and training programs. He discusses education and training legislation, changes in legislative and program emphasis, and the national commitment to institution-based programs. R. Evans examines national youth employment legislation and its underlying issues and policies. R. Taggart and G. Wurzberg address themselves to opportunities for vocational education in youth employment and training programs. D. Robinson deals with special needs youth: minorities, handicapped, females, and dropouts. J. Rossbach illustrates effective strategies for implementing the federal youth legislation, emphasizing CETA and the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act. L. D. Briggs examines components of exemplary training programs for youth. G. Venn describes successful patterns of serving youth through vocational education, emphasizing the need for educational change. Finally, L. Gess stresses the need for a national youth development policy, elaborating on the function of policy makers in stimulating youth employment. Several chapters have lists of suggested readings and addresses to write for further information. (CT)

The Noneconomic Impacts of the Job Corps. R&D Monograph 64. Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1978. (ED 164 831).

A three-year pilot study was conducted to determine the non-economic benefits of the Job Corps on the impact areas of jobs, society, and health. Representing seven Job Corps Centers, a sample of 489 youths between the ages of 16 and 22 participated, of whom 85 percent were black and 87 percent were urban. In order to draw comparisons, the participants were chosen from three different groups: persisters or those who remained in the Job Corps at least three months; those who dropped out of the program earlier; and those who did not enroll. Of the twenty-one outcomes which were measured covering the three impact areas, persisters were found to have improved in eight areas (job seeking skills, job satisfaction, attitude toward authority, self-esteem, crime reduction, nutrition behavior, family relations, and leisure time), while dropouts only improved in two and non-enrollees in five. Particularly impressive was the Job Corps' impact on (1) crime reduction, which showed that the Corps can function effectively as a rehabilitation agent (delinquent females were found to have benefitted the most with only a four percent rate of recidivism among persisters, or compared to a much higher rate for nonenrolled and dropout females; and (2) health, which resulted from the Corps' providing free medical care to participants, including physical examinations, doctor visits, dental care, and family life and nutrition education. (Numerous tables throughout display various analyses of the data collected for this study.) (ELG)

Final Report--Secondary Impact Study. Chico, California, 1978. (ED 164 244).

The Special Secondary Impact Program instituted in fourteen California secondary schools provided counselling and part time jobs to migrant students to help them stay in school long enough to graduate. The study examined the program's effect on inter-and intra-state migrant secondary school students. Variables measured migrant enrollment, migrant enrollment in various types of courses (vocational, college and university preparatory, and other classes), and number of migrant students graduating. Each target school was paired to a comparison school with like population size, migrant impaction, and socio-economic description; migrant students participating in the work study program were compared with other migrants in their own schools as well as in the comparison school. Data were developed from 1975 through 1978. In 1977-78 substantial enrollment increases for migrant students were noted at the target schools. No change in number of school enrollment days for students participating in the program was seen. Participation in work study seemed to increase the proportion of college preparatory classes taken in high school by a student as well as the proportion of vocational classes taken by a female student. For all three years target schools had greater percentages of migrants graduation; tables and graphs suggest that the target migrant students graduated more often than the comparison students. However, all three groups of migrants graduated with approximately the same degree of frequency in 1977-78. (DS)

Young Women and Employment: What We Know and Need to Know About the School to-Work Transition. Washington, D.C., 1978. (ED 163 113).

In this report, summaries of papers given at the conference on young women's work to school transition are reprinted. Themes addressed include: (1) problems of teenagers, teenage mothers, and the transition to adulthood; (2) problems faced by youth and minority youth; and (3) responsibilities of educators; (4) employment programs; (5) employment prospects in the private sector; and (6) Federal programs for youth employment. Recommendations of the conference are: (1) women and minorities must work together to improve their job options; (2) stereotypes of people's expectations of women must be changed if they are to have equal employment opportunities; (3) institutional changes to promote collective action and to eliminate sex roles are needed; (4) women must be exposed to the option of non-traditional employment before they enter high-school; (5) parents must be informed early of job options and of the fact that their daughters will probably work; (6) extra training must be provided for minority women; (7) good data bases must be created to provide information on the employment and unemployment of women, particularly minorities. Appendices include a list of conference participants, the conference agenda, and a bibliography of books related to women and employment. (WI)

National Alliance of Business and Career Education. Monographs on Career Education. Washington, D.C., 1978. (ED 162 160).

This monograph, summarizing the ideas of participants attending a two-day mini-conference, provides educators with information on the relationship between the National Alliance with a section presenting background information on NAB and several standard NAB youth programs. The next section provides specific examples of NAB involvement with local career education efforts, including the NAB Career Guidance Institute (CGI) youth program. Also, examples of collaboration between NAB and Youth Employment Demonstration Program Act (YEDPA) programs in local career education efforts are presented. Then follows a section highlighting five common problems along with suggested solutions for closer NAB and career education working relationships. The next section summarizes the hopes and aspirations expressed by the participants and is followed by some concluding remarks. A list of participants and issues raised by the participants is attached. (EM)

How Young People Find Career-Entry Jobs: A Review of the Literature. Baltimore, Maryland, Center for Social Organization of Schools, 1977. (ED 160 821).

This report examines the existing literature concerning how young people enter the labor market and specifies what important questions may be analyzed by existing but untapped data and what issues require further research. In reviewing the extent of current knowledge, its scope is found to be limited to three general areas: the role is known of background factors, ability, school performance, and the influence of teachers, family, and friends on the age (or grade level) at which young men make the transition from school to work; people are influenced by their personalities to aspire to certain types of occupations; and young people find jobs primarily through the assistance of acquaintances and relatives but prefer direct application without the intervention of a third party. Routes for further investigation are suggested as follows: (1) age/SES socio-economic status/race/education-specific distributions and transition rates for full- and part-time schooling and simultaneous employment; (2) longitudinal studies of preferences that include later actual job outcome characteristics to test the assumption that career aspiration helps to explain the allocation of different jobs; (3) data on recruitment methods used nationally by employers (i.e., data indicating age-specific preferences for employees and based on actual behavior); and (4) more elaborate study of the process of job search, emphasizing patterns of job seeking across occupational situses, heterogeneity of job search methods, and the relationships among duration, intensity, and methods of search. (Author/ELG)

Improving Job Opportunities for Youth: A Review of Prime Sponsor Experience in Implementing the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act. Washington, D.C. 1978. (ED 159 414).

This report of the National Council on Employment Policy to the Department of Labor identifies some major themes and analyzes the diverse experiences occurring in ten case studies. The case studies examine a total of thirty-seven prime sponsors (in twelve states) charged with improving job opportunities for youth. "Summary and Recommendations," the first of the report's three parts, draws some tentative conclusions about the effectiveness of prime sponsors and the Department of Labor in implementing the new youth programs and offers some guidance for forthcoming operations. Part 2, "The National Picture," presents the national backdrop to the prime sponsor experience. It analyzes national level conditions and national office policy's direct effects on prime sponsor plans and experiences. The third part, "Experiences at the Local Level," analyzes the case study patterns with reference to the objectives of the Department of Labor's Office of Youth Programs. In this major portion of the report, there are reviews of knowledge development, work experience quality under the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act, youth participation, targeting, substitution, coordinating services for youth, involvement of community-based organizations, and changes in institutional relationships. (CSS)

Job Placement Center. Final Report. Pittsburgh, Pa., 1977. (ED 159 304).

Objectives of the second-year project described in this report were (1) to conduct a series of one-day workshops on job searching skills for at least 400 high school students and recent graduates; (2) to test interested students and match individual abilities and interests with available employment; (3) to contact at least 600 potential employers; (4) to involve the Bureau of Employment Security; (5) to fill at least 50% of the openings listed with the Center with participating students and graduates; and (6) to determine the feasibility of establishing satellite centers. Procedures for attaining these objectives are described, as well as results obtained, including results of a pilot study on satellite placement centers. Four major evaluations are presented: the Placement Center project overall, and a one-year followup are presented and include implementing the Job Placement Center program within the high schools of one or two interested school districts. The major portion of the report consists of appendixes--primarily the evaluation forms and responses for both the Job Placement Center and the pilot study. (Related document ED 137 582 presents the first-year report of the project.) (BL)

Metropolitan Youth Education Center. 1975 (ED 158 220).

The Metropolitan Youth Education Center's program is designed to help high school dropouts and the unemployed or under-employed whose problems are attributable to educational deprivation. The educational program is highly individualized. Each student program is developed to meet the personal goals, time available, ability and achievement level of the student. Within this framework the Center provides basic education, the prerequisite experiences to qualify for a diploma or to participate in the General Educational Development Test (GED), as well as training in employable skills. The students participating in this program range from 16 to 26 years of age. Their predominant academic deficiencies fall in the area of reading problems. Counselling services include personal, academic, social, and vocational counselling which focuses on the establishment of realistic goals and self-concepts for progress into adult society. Some of the problems of maintaining the programs are funding, high student turnover and poor transportation to the four geographic locations. However, within a 12-month period 204 students successfully completed the GED, 258 students received formal high school diplomas and 68 students successfully participated in a Cooperative Work Study Program. (Author)

Youth Serving the Community: Realistic Public Service Roles for Young Workers. Final Report. New York, N.Y., 1978. (ED 156 838).

This report on youth employment programs is intended to help prime sponsors and program operators implement innovative youth employment efforts under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) and the Youth Employment and Demonstration Project Act (YEDPA). The content is in two chapters. Chapter 1 covers the introduction, meeting community needs, recognizing needs of youth, staff, and project elements. The second chapter, comprising most of the report, provides brief descriptions of work experience projects (many of which involve adults but can be adapted to meet the needs and abilities of youth) in the following ten areas: housing, health, environment and conservation, social services, public safety, public works, cultural and beautification, education, economic and community development, and clerical and administrative. Each of the many projects covered includes project title, city and/or state, bibliographic citation, and description. A bibliography containing 156 references is attached. (EM)

Career Education and the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act. 1978. (ED 155 353).

The information presented in this document is intended to guide career educators who wish to tap CETA (Comprehensive Education and Training Act) funds to help support career education endeavors for inshcool youth, especially since the 1977 additions from the Youth Employment and Demonstration Project Act (YEDPA) have given CETA a more significant role with the inschool population. The author first traces the role of youth in pre-CETA manpower programs and in CETA programs to 1977. The relative effectiveness of CETA program strategies over the past fifteen years is then summarized and includes a discussion of ineffective program strategies, programs and services of demonstrated effectiveness, strategies that appear to work best for certain target groups, and administration practices and related factors which influence success. Next the options available for serving inschool youth under the 1977-78 laws and practices are delineated and a discussion focusing on CETA/Career Education interface is presented Finally, recommendations are offered for linking career education to current youth employment policies for the enrichment of both. (BM)

Toward a Federal Policy on Education and Work. Washington, D.C., 1977. (ED 151 579).

Aspects of the relationship between education and work (career education) for youths and adults and directions for future federal policy in this area are identified in this document. Part 1 examines the problems that youths face in making a successful transition from school to work, including knowledge of the labor market, self-knowledge of abilities and aptitudes, occupational socialization, certifying competencies, and assistance in finding work and developing job seeking skills. Effectiveness of current programs in addressing these problems is also discussed. It is suggested that the Vocational Education Act or the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) be amended to effect the provision of school-based placement services and establishment of state career information systems. It is also contended that federal activities in the areas of certification of competencies, occupational socialization, and self-knowledge of abilities and aptitudes fall within the categories of research and development or technical assistance and training and could be funded under current discretionary authority and budget levels. Part 2 addresses the problems which adults face in finding opportunities to change their career or life directions and the inequitable distribution of work in American society. Recommendations for federal policy focus on research on career and life redirection and renewal, career information and guidance systems, time-income tradeoff and work scheduling options, and leave-of-absence without pay. Implementation of these recommendations is discussed. (TA)

Services to the American Indian Population to Bridge the Gap Between Education, Culture and the World of Work. Final Report. Rhinelander, Wisconsin, 1978. (ED 151 539).

A project involving three vocational technical and adult education (VTAE) districts in Wisconsin was undertaken to develop and field test a model for improving the bridge between school, cultures, and the world of work for American Indians. Each of the districts had unique needs which necessitated differing methodologies to achieve the project goals. The project results follow: (1) approximately 900 American Indian youth were reached through the project activities; (2) activities, such as sending letters and making presentations, were implemented to familiarize out-of-school American Indian youth with educational and training opportunities; (3) many in-school American Indian youth took advantage of occupational guidance and counselling opportunities made available to them; (4) VTAE student services staff gained a better appreciation of Native American school participation problems; (5) VTAE faculty members were familiarized with Wisconsin American Indian culture, aspirations, problems, and needs through inservice programs, workshops, and working with Native American students; (6) a slide series featuring Native Americans in successful job situations was well accepted by students; and (7) the operational model to improve the bridge between school and work for American Indians varied in each of the districts. The results indicate that all expectations were met and exceeded during the first year of the project. (EM)

Career Education: The Role of School-Related Youth Groups and Voluntary Organizations. Information Series No. 108. Ohio State University, Columbus. ERIC Clearinghouse on Career Education, 1977. (ED 149 178).

Purposes and activities of existing youth groups and voluntary organizations are reviewed in this information analysis paper to determine their relationship to career education. Addressed to youth groups and voluntary organization leaders and sponsors, school administrators and state department vocational education personnel, the paper also identifies areas which need youth group or volunteer participation and outlines strategies for filling these needs. Topics discussed include the following: The individual model of career education, the role of school youth groups and volunteer organizations in career education and an overview of the current career education impact of school youth groups. School groups designed to help prepare students for occupations discussed are Distributive Education Clubs of America, Vocational Industrial Clubs of America, Future Homemakers of America, Future Business Leaders of America, Office Education Association, and Future Farmers of America. The following information about these groups is provided: Sponsoring organization, distribution, participation, types of career education emphasis provided, and contacts. An overview of the current career education impact of volunteer organizations is presented and the following volunteer organizations are described: Boys Clubs of America, Boy Scouts of America (Exploring Division), Girls Clubs of America, Inc., Girl Scouts of the USA, 4-H Clubs, Hire-A-Neighborhood-Youth (WMCA), Junior Achievement, and the American National Red Cross. (TA)

A Comprehensive Occupational Education System: Research and Experimentation in a Career Development Center. Volume II. Plan for Comprehensive Occupational Education System in New York City's Borough of the Bronx. Brooklyn N.Y. Division of Educational Planning and Support, 1977. (ED 147 495).

Designed to gather and analyze the information needed to develop a plan for a model comprehensive occupational educational system (CDES), this research project is reported in five chapters. Chapter 1 provides an overview of the project which was conducted in the Bronx borough of New York City because this area exemplifies the problems of urban education and has a high unemployment rate for minority teenagers. Chapter 2 defines the existing occupational education delivery system, identifies the unmet needs of the target population and provides an analysis of the labor market. Chapers 3 and 4 present the plan for a COES and its component parts: a career development center (CDC), a centralized information system, and a career guidance system. Organized schemes for both a COES and a CDC are presented, as well as sections dealing with facilities planning, transportation and scheduling patterns, curriculum development and coordination with business/industry/labor/community. The final chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations of the COER Project (Comprehensive Occupational Education Research). Suggested guidelines for developing such a system in other large cities are included in a companion document. (BM)

A Comprehensive Occupational Education System. Research and Experimentation in a Career Development Center. Volume I. Planning a Comprehensive

Occupational Education System for a Major Metropolitan Area. Brooklyn, N.Y. Division of Educational Planning and Support, 1977. (ED 147 494).

Intended primarily for directors of occupational education for the development of a comprehensive occupational education system (COES) based upon the COER (Comprehensive Occupation Education Research) Project model developed in New York City. After describing the background, objectives, and implementation of the COER Project and briefly explaining the systems approach to planning, the recommended action steps for planning such a system are presented under the following twelve major divisions: a comprehensive occupational education plan for a major metropolitan area; coordination--involvement, business, industry, labor, the community; public attitudes; vocational guidance, counselling, placement and followup; personnel development; articulation; monitoring and evaluation; remediation; handicapped and bilingual; and planning alternative facilities for comprehensive occupational education: a career development center. Finally, guidelines for planning a career development center facility are presented. (BM)

Wisconsin Occupational Information System. Annual Progress Report. July 14, 1976 July 13, 1977. Second Year of Operation. Madison. Wisconsin Vocational Studies Center, 1977. (ED 145 191).

The 1977 activities and progress of the Wisconsin Occupational Information System (WOIS) are described in this second annual report. An introduction presents an overview of WOIS, including a description of the computerized system, which is designed to provide quick, accurate, up-to-date occupational information for career decision making to a variety of persons. The body of the report is divided into seven sections: (1) administrative and organizational information, including the staffing pattern and job description for WOIS; (2) information development; (3) delivery systems; (4) user services (product, price, inservice, promotion-marketing information); (5) evaluation; (6) financial information (WOIS salaries and wages, direct and indirect costs) and (7) future directions for information delivery, information development, user services, and evaluation procedures. Data tables are presented throughout the report, and a ninety-three-page appendix includes such items as a sample occupational description, sample quickie questionnaires, a user services brochure, and sample user survey sheets. (BL)

Community Councils and the Transitions Between Education and Work. Washington, D.C., 1976. (ED 142 726).

A change is needed in the present arrangements for the transition of youth (ages 14 to 20) from education to work to improve their access to roles which aid in occupational maturity. There are a number of components to an improvement effort and, within the components, there are alternative approaches such as starting with a process rather than a program. A community collaborative process (community education-work councils) among the institutions and individuals that have the responsibility, resources, and influence to deal effectively with the school to work transition process should be established. There needs to be some systematic research of the council concept as a broad collaborative process at the community level and its effect on the school to work transition of youths. A project hypothesizing that collaboration among specified institutions will lead to a set of actions that will provide enlarged opportunities for the occupational maturity of youth can be designed by using the National Manpower Institute's (NMI) pilot effort to increase collaboration at the community level as an illustration. This research project will involve the testing of five subhypotheses evolving from NMI's effort that represent the expected outcomes of the collaborative process. (In addition to discussing the state of the art of community education-work councils in dealing with the youth transition from education to work, this paper also addresses briefly the use of such councils in the transition of adults from work to education.) (EM)

Industry-Education Collaborative Efforts in Youth Employment. 1976. (ED 139 918).

Increasing attention is being paid to linking education and the market place to prepare youth for a productive role in work. Three areas constitute the ingredients for developing a realistic strategy: (1) Changes in the market place, (2) a delivery system for increased youth employment, and (3) local industry-education councils. Over the next decade significant changes will have impact on the employment situation for youth and will require major adjustments in the educational programs focusing on school-to-work transition. Some of these trends are technological changes, occupational changes from goods to services, new market areas primarily in the South and southwest, a rise in educational requirements, higher incomes, declining birthrate, and more women and blacks in the work force. A delivery system for youth employment should focus on school-to-work transition, with industry and education collaborating on the following: Statement of goals, staff development programs in career education, school building coordinators in career education, curriculum restructuring to reflect career education concepts, career information/resource centers, job placement services (including needs assessment, job development, student development, placement, and followup), school building-employer partnerships, and task forces of volunteer career consultants. Industry-education councils can link the market place and the delivery system on the local level as representatives of business, education, labor, government, agriculture, and the professions work together on coordination of school industry cooperative efforts. (LMS)

From School to Work. Improving the Transition. Washington, D.C., 1976. (ED 138 724).

Youth employment is the focus of this compilation of eleven working papers (by selected specialists) developed to aid the National Commission for Manpower Policy (NMCP) in its ongoing efforts to develop a national manpower policy. An introductory section comments on the overall needs/conclusions revealed by the policy papers. Policy paper titles and authors are "Youth Transition to Work: The Problem and Federal Policy Setting," by Paul E. Barton; "The Youth Labor Market," by Marcia Freedman; "Corporate Hiring Practices," by the NCMP staff; "Labor Market Experience of Non-college Youth: A Longitudinal Analysis," by Herbert S. Parnes and Andrew I. Kohen; "The Competencies of Youth," by Ralph Winfred Tyler; "Employment and Training Link Education and Work," by Dennis

Galagher; "Informational and Counselor Needs in the Transition Process," by Seymour L. Wolfbein; "Apprenticeship: A Potential Weapon against Minority Youth Unemployment," by Ernest G. Green; "Problems of Rural Youth," by Ray Marshall; and "Foreign and American Experience with the Youth Transition," by Beatrice G. Reubens. The appendix outlines issues and policy perspectives drawn from the policy papers. (SH)

Analysis and Synthesis of DOL Experience in Youth Transition to Work Programs. Final Report. Alexandria, Va., 1976. (ED 138 721).

This report reviews the experience with Federal programs concerned with the transition from school to work and abstracts lessons and guiding principles which might prove useful for planning and administering training and employment programs. The current labor force situation of youth (persons 16-24 years of age) is reviewed, impediments to the employment of youth are examined, the demographic and attitudinal characteristics of hard-to-employ youth are analyzed, guiding principles developed, and program implications described. Recommendations are made relating to skill training, remedial education, work experience, assessment, counselling, job development and placement, and program coordination. A selected bibliography is also included. (Author/WL)

Rite of Passage: The Crisis of Youth's Transition from School to Work. New York, N.Y., 1976. (ED 138 709).

Current high unemployment and underemployment for all youth, and particularly for youths from poor and minority families, led to this study on the crisis of youth's transition from school to work. The study was conducted in four phases: A review of the literature and interviews with work-force experts to identify issues and alternatives; an analysis of the data and opinions gathered and the preparation of a background paper; a critical analysis of that paper; and the preparation of a position paper on youth employment containing specific policy and programmatic recommendations for both short and long-term policies. The sixteen recommendations are presented as a group and then substantiated individually in discussions of (1) the background of work and labor practices, (2) the labor market, including the current job situation, credentialism, child labor laws, and labor market data and information, (3) preparation for work, including education, vocational education in the high schools, postsecondary vocational education, career education, youth manpower programs, evaluation of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA), and linkages, and (4) Federal Involvement in dealing with these issues. (TA)

Labor Market Information for Youths. Phildelphia, Pa. School of Business Administration, 1975. (ED 134 708).

This volume brings together the thirteen papers delivered at the Conference on improving Labor Market Information for Youth, conducted by the U.S. Department of Labor and Temple University in 1974. The papers focus on assessing the role of labor market information in the process of helping to endow young people with what they need to transact with the school-work connection. The beginning papers discuss several of the issues surrounding high unemployment among youth, followed by a factual review of where the United States is and where it is expected to be in the immediate years ahead in some important dimensions of the population, labor force, and employment trends relating to youth. The latter series of papers contain a discussion of the potentialities of improving labor market information for young people, not only in the kind of information but in the manner in which it is made available. Titles of the papers are "The Rites of Passsage," "Approaches to the Transition from School to Work," "New Developments in Career Education: A National Perspective," "Proposal for Educational Work Experience," "The New Worker--Implications of Demographic Trends," "Youth Employment and Career Entry," "Youth Employment Opportunities: Changes in the Relative Position of College and High School Graduates," "Improved Labor Market Information and Career Choice: Issues in Program Evaluation," "Improved Job Information: Its Impact on Long-Run Labor Market Experience," "Occupational Data: The Foundation of a Labor Market Information System," "Application of Information Systems to Career and Job Choice," "The California Experience," and "Organization of a Career Information System: The Oregon Approach." (SH)

A Step-By-Step Guide to Job Placement. Topsham, Maine. (ED 121 988).

The document presents a procedural guide for setting up and managing a job placement program for high school graduates. Four alternative models are presented: (1) a school-based model involving a placement person, placement office, comprehensive program, and integration into the school program; (2) a placement team model, involving teacher volunteers; (3) a regional center model, a cooperative plan utilizing a regional vocational center; and (4) a senior placement assistant model, featuring the active involvment of a placement during the final semester to assist seniors in job-seeking. Steps for a comprehensive placement program are presented together with materials that will help the students and placement person in the process of job-seeking: (1) needs assessment, discussing student needs and employer needs; (2) job development; (3) student development, descriptions of job-seeking/job-keeping seminars, services for undergraduates, games, activities, forms, and questionnaires; (4) the placement system, discussing the placement of younger students, the company file, various job-related forms, placing seniors before graduation, and coordination with existing placement agencies; (5) student followup, focusing on employer role, post-graduate followup methods and forms, and undergraduate followup groups; and (6) evaluation methods and forms. (EC)

Project 70,001. An Exemplary Program Establishing Cooperative Distributive Education for Disadvantaged Youth. Final Report. Hartford, Connecticut. Division of Vocational Education, 1975. (ED 118 917).

The project combines full-time and on-the-job work experience with related programs of youth activities and classroom instruction, and provides an avenue for acquiring the Connecticut State Equivalency Diploma. It is aimed at serving young adults in Hartford, Connecticut who have left school before completing twelve years and who are unable to obtain employment. As of June 30, 1975, eighteen of twenty-five enrollees have been placed in training stations and more than sixty have been interviewed and pretested. More than seventy business contacts have been made. An advisory committee and a chapter of the Distributive Education Clubs of America (DECA) have been formed. A sample of the interview questionnaire which is administered to the prospective program participants appears in the appendix. Also appended are lists of the participating business firms, membership lists of the DECA chapter and advisory council, testing data, and information concerning project meetings. (NJ)

Springfield School District Youth Placement Service. Springfield, Oregon. (ED 117 481).

The job placement guide, designed to help individuals (high school or college students or graduates) find suitable employment, is presented in five sections. Each section contains items such as checklists, suggestions, and inventories which a student can use independently to improve his chances of finding a satisfactory job. The first section deals with self-evaluation and includes a personality inventory and a personal vocational questionnaire. The second section presents a job conditions checklist, suggestions for finding job information and job openings, and a brief description of placement services for guidance in job evaluation. Section three helps the individual prepare for a successful job interview. The details of writing a resume are presented in section four. The final section offers some suggestions for job success. Appended are personal data and the resume forms, a sample resume, and an employer prospect list form. (MS)

Review and Synthesis of Job Placement Literature: Volume I of a Research Project to Develop a Coordinated Comprehensive Placement System. Wisconsin University, Madison. Center for Studies in Vocational and Technical Education, 1975. (ED 109 428).

The five-part document reviews the literature of job placement and the relationship between youth and employment--the barriers, services, and specific needs. The first part discusses in particular the importance of the work role, the preparation of youth for employment, and the methods used to secure work as these affect youth's entry into the labor market. In part 2, the placement needs of youth are examined in terms of unemployment, educational opportunities, career planning, and job seeking skills. Specific youth groups are discussed regarding the unique factors affecting youth's abilities to enter an occupational role. The groups are: women (in particular, the minorities), rural youth, dropouts, college bound, and noncollege bound students. Specific problems, possible educational pathways for job preparation, surveys of current vocational guidance programs, and recommendations for vocational guidance are discussed for each group. In part 3, components of the guidance system through a literature survey of educational and guidance services are presented. In part 4, the family, school, and government as providers of placement services are reviewed. In part 5, the exemplary models of placement services are presented. A summary of the current status of career guidance of youth and a bibliography are included. (Author/JB)

Youth and the Meaning of Work. Part II. Houston University, Texas, 1974. (ED 108 530).

This document represents a followup study of college seniors who graduated in the spring of 1972. The first stage of the research dealt with the career related aspirations, expectations, and apprehensions of 1,858 American college seniors of the class of 1972. This document, which is the second stage of the study, is based on data obtained from this group one year after college graduation. The major purpose of the followup study is to identify the fit between career-related expectations and career-related outcomes one year after college graduation. The document begins with a discussion and review of the first study. The chapters describe: (1) the procedures utilized in the development of the followup questionnaire, the process utilized in efforts to reach the respondents, the results of these efforts, and data dealing with the representativeness of the followup sample; (2) the marital, geographic, and career-related attitudes of graduates; (3) respondents who entered the employment market after graduation, the process by which college graduates seek employment, and general attitudes toward current and future work settings; (4) experiences and attitudes of those who have pursued graduate and professional school involvements, noting how variables such as sex and field of study relate to variation in graduate school experience and attitudes; and (5) differences and similarities between three groups using sex, socioeconomic status, and field of study as variables in explaining differences in post-college activities. (Author/KE)

Youth 1974: Finance-Related Attitudes. Report on the Institute's Third Biennial Survey of Americans Ages 14 through 25. New York, N.Y., 1974. (ED 107 559).

The probability sample for this national survey of youth's attitudes included 2,510 young people between the ages of 14 and 25 years. Results indicate that at the start of the 1970's there was a major turn about in attitudes. The fast changing attitudes of the 1960's seem to have been replaced by a more stable and conservative set of views and values. Young people have grown quite serious and more conventional. Interest in the youth counterculture has declined while there is a growing interest in executive and professional lifestyles. Data are included on youth's attitudes toward money, consumerism, life insurance, life insurance companies, responsibility for financial well-being, alternative lifestyles, marriage and the family, work, and careers. (Author/DE)

Model for Implementation of School Placement Services. 1974. (ED 106 477).

The guide is designed to provide school administrators and guidance directors with an outline of what has been and what can be developed in the areas of structure and organization of student job placement programs. It describes a model program developed for the Akron-Summit County Ohio secondary schools, and consists of detailed outlines of the program's orientation and structure. The section on orientation deals with: communicating with top administrative staff, contacting and interviewing school principals and counselors, meeting with students, and contacting and involving individuals and groups in the community. The program structure section deals with: office and logistical organization, staff selection and orientation, data processing, staff organization, in-school and out-of-school program phases, and job development. More than half of the guide consists of sample forms and reports dealing with program procedures and student identification, illustrative of the structure within which a placement specialist could operate. (Author/JR)

Model for School Pre-Employment Activities. 1974. (ED 106 476).

The guide argues for the establishment of placement services in secondary schools and provides detailed instructional units and suggestions for conducting pre-employment clinics which aim to provide all students leaving school with a basic understanding and working knowledge of the skills necessary to seek out and obtain employment or additional training and to utilize available community employment services. Two units focus on pre-employment forms such as want ads and resumes. Other sections of the guide describe procedures for: surveying and assessing employment opportunities in the community, in business, and in industry; compiling and using a guidance career resource file; analyzing promotion opportunities in assorted job situations; keeping a job, once one is found; and starting a business. Suggestions for planning a job hunting clinic and a sample clinic outline are also provided. Also included are a sample job application and McBee card, and an agency and organization contact sheet. A packet containing an assortment of pre-employment-job hunting materials is appended. (JR)

New Roles for Youth in the School and the Community. New York, N.Y., 1974. (ED 106 182).

This book provides descriptions of youth involvement projects that have made significant contributions to young people, their schools, and their communities. Each description is intended to provide information for starting and operating similar youth projects. They explain how a particular project began, mention the important problems encountered, and indicate the kind of support needed for operating the project. Each chapter has a special focus and contains in depth descriptions of three appropriate programs and shorter descriptions of additional supplementary projects. Chapter topics include (1) Youth as Curriculum Builders, (2) Youth as Teachers, (3) Youth as Community Manpower, (4) Youth as Entrepreneurs, (5) Youth as Community Problem-Solvers, (6) Youth as Communicators, and (7) Youth as Resources for Youth. The final chapter offers suggestions on how to judge quality programs, tips for getting a project started, and necessary adult leadership qualities. (DE)

Boys Residential Youth Center (Effect of Innovative, Supportive Services in Changing Attitudes of "High Risk" Youth). Final Report. New Haven, Connecticut, 1969. (ED 081 979).

The Residential Youth Center, based in the inner city, was established to house those "high risk" youths who were not being reached by existing manpower programs. The staff consisted of indigenous, nonprofessional personnel who worked intensively with families. The project was able to effect tremendous behavioral changes in dozens of 16-21 year old male youth who were subsequently enrolled in manpower programs. (Author)

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PREFACE

In August, 1977, the United States Congress approved a bill to combat youth unemployment titled, Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act (YEDPA). The YEDPA authorizes programs designed to provide youths between the ages of 14 and 21 with short-term employment, counseling and related services, education and training. Structured as a demonstration project and written as an amendment to the 1973 Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA), YEDPA seeks to determine effective ways of addressing the unemployment problems of youth. In 1978, when CETA was reauthorized, YEDPA was incorporated into the new legislation without change, but extended for only one more year (unlike the rest of the CETA legislation) since Congress wanted to see the results of the demonstration before making any decisions regarding the youth employment program.

Youthwork, Incorporated, a private, non-profit corporation established by the U. S. Department of Labor, is responsible for helping to implement the Act (Public Law 95-93). Its functions are to fund and manage exemplary in-school projects and to develop new knowledge and policy recommendations with regard to four topical areas: (1) job creation through youth-operated projects; (2) career information, guidance, and job-seeking skills; (3) expanded private-sector involvement; and (4) the award of academic credit for work experience. In addition, Youthwork is charged with developing knowledge about effective programs and strategies for serving two special target populations: handicapped and high risk youth.

Six literature searches were commissioned by Youthwork in an effort to determine the state of the art of each of the above four areas and the two special categories of youth. The staff of Youthwork, Inc. requested a review of the literature and current research on the awarding of academic credit for work experience as a basis for planning future knowledge development in this area, an important one given the emphasis placed by Congress on the relationship between education and work in the 1977 Act, the 1978 CETA reauthorization, and in the legislative revisions currently underway.

The major data sources for this paper were:

1. Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC). The following descriptors were used in the computer search: academic credit, college credit, credits; cooperative education, work experience, work experience programs, work study program, experiential programs, field experience programs; experiential education, career exploration, experience-based; employment experience, job training, on-the-job training, apprenticeship, in-plant programs; CETA or Comprehensive Employment and Training Act; school industry relationship, interagency cooperation; and student evaluation.

2. The Employment and Training Administration (ETA) Index. The following descriptors were used in a hand search: work experience; youth programs, education; youth; on-the-job training, job training, apprenticeship; and the titles of specific programs funded by the Department of Labor (DOL) that provide youth with work experience opportunities, such as the Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC), Summer Program for Economically Disadvantaged Youth (SPEDY)--now called the Summer Youth Employment Program (SYEP), and CETA.

3. Department of Labor officials who provided me with published and unpublished reports and documents of relevance to the search.

4. Representatives of organizations involved in projects concerned with CETA/LEA collaboration such as the National Governor's Association, the Chief State School Officers, and the National Association of State Boards of Education.

The results of those searches and information sought elsewhere (e.g., libraries, telephone discussions with individuals involved in operating work experience or related kinds of programs) are reported in this paper.

The issue of awarding credit for work experience and other types of experiential learning forces us to reexamine the structure and equity of our educational institutions, our definitions of and distinctions between education and training, the purposes for which we are educating our youth, and the reasons we are unable, with our existing educational system, to reach a particular segment of our youth--the high-school dropout. The educational system of the United States attempts to meet the needs of a broader spectrum of children and youth than any other country in the world. That it fails to meet the needs of all youngsters should therefore not be curprising. I firmly believe the answer lies in providing our youth with as many different types of educational approaches as we can while advising them of the advantages, disadvantages and purposes of each. I look upon the new programs developed under YEDPA, and subsequent legislation, with the hope that as a result of these programs new methods for teaching "hard to reach" youngsters will be demonstrated. A more far reaching result will be the closer cooperation and collaboration of the educational community and the employment and training community in preparing American youth to lead productive and satisfying lives.

INTRODUCTION

Some educators looked upon the passage of the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act (YEDPA) in 1977 with the hope that it would, at last, legitimize experiential education and resolve the controversy surrounding what is called competence- or performance-based education and the current system, which is a time-based one. That hope stemmed from the use of the phrase "academic credit" in the legislation. Knowing that any academic credit awarded for learning resulting from experience in an out-of-school setting has to be substantiated and documented to an extent not required for classroom learning, these educators hoped that the legislation would stimulate a reform of the entire credit system.

Morris Keeton (1977) described the current system for awarding credits thusly.

> Credit hours do not signify directly what has been learned or achieved, but represent a time-served measure that correlates only roughly and in unknown ways and degrees what has been learned. (Keeton et al, 1977: 14)

The controversy over credit is related to concerns about the equity of the present educational system as well as the value of experiential education.

> Basically, higher education has been designed for white middle-class children who can attend residential programs . . . In this sense, the disenfranchised are the non-young, non-white, non-middle- and upper-class students . . . Experiential learnings is a mode of learning more amendable to the realities of the lives of those who have been excluded from the traditional mode . . . (Gartner in Keeton et al, 1977: 38)

Alan Gartner contends that unless experiential education is given a full status and recognition it will always been seen as an alternative, a poor substitute for, traditional educational methods.

The forces at play in this controversy include educators who advocate performance-based credit structures, proponents of education as preparation for life and work, and policy makers who are determined that agencies and institutions that provide services to youths at the federal, state and local levels must work more cooperatively and, therefore, effectively in providing those services. Arguments over the extent to which education should address the practical realities of every day life versus other "higher" aims are long-standing among educators. So are arguments about whether and how to categorize students for instructional purposes into those of different achievement levels and goals. Because the issue of awarding credit for work experience is so closely tied to these basic philosophical and ideological concerns, they must be confronted by youth employment and training policy makers if they wish to influence the direction the educational system takes with regard to them.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of this paper is to determine the extent to which current knowledge can answer eight policy questions raised by Youthwork, Inc. and the Department of Labor regarding the awarding of academic credit for work experience. These questions, which are included in the appendix (pages 34-35) can, with some overlap, be grouped into three issue areas.

1. Placements--the differential impact of placing studens in on- versus off-campus work experience slots, in public versus private sector jobs.
2. Cooperative Arrangements/Collaboration--interinstitutional linkages that promote and strengthen programs that award academic credit for work experience.
3. Credit--the types and quantities in which credit is awarded, procedures for evaluating student performance and awarding credit, transferrability of credit from one institution to another, and the awarding of credit for summer work experience.

Most of the questions (numbers 3, 5, 6, 7 and 8) focus in whole or in part on the awarding of credit. However, the kinds of credit that can be awarded are related to where a student is placed, and the transferrability of credit is dependent, in some measure, on how it was awarded. Thus the reader is cautioned against interpreting these groupings as discrete categories. In fact, two questions (numbers 6 and 7) are addressed both under the issue area of Cooperative Arrangements/Collaboration and under that of Credit. Conclusions and recommendations for further research will be discussed within each area rather than at the end of this paper.

The remainder of this section of the paper will define key terms and present historical and contextual information about work experience programs.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Tension between the philosophy that the primary purpose of education is to train abstract thinkers and the belief that it should prepare youngsters to lead satisfying and productive lives, lives devoted largely to work, is reflected in the terms common to education. In the 1950's, during the post-Sputnik reaction to the expansionist efforts of the progressive education movement, that had until that time dominated American education, secondary curricula became structured once again by study of the traditional disciplines. (Cremin, 1964; Bailey, 1977) The fifties marked a return to a more conservative view of education, especially secondary education, whose purpose was to develop the ability to think. As a result, the curricular and credit structures of the high school were more closely aligned to postsecondary institutions so that a high school education would serve as preparation for college. Graduation requirements and the dichotomy between "academic" and elective courses are the result of the concerns of that era for establishing educational priorities and training youth to think. (Cremin, 1964)

"Academic", whose root meaning is "theoretical" or "abstract" (Webster's New World Dictionary, 1970), is defined at the secondary level of education as courses in English, foreign languages, history, economics, mathematics and science. (Good, 1973) By and large, high school graduation requirements specify the number of units students must complete in those disciplines. Academic credit, therefore, is credit awarded for an academic course.

Postsecondary institutions use a slightly different definition, but one nonetheless that relates to graduation requirements. There the term is applied to a general or liberal arts course of study, as opposed to a technical or vocational one. Courses required for the degree are generally considered "academic" courses. More recently, however, the term has been broadened to distinguish instructional from noninstructional activities.

Credit is the method by which learning is quantified and certified. It is awarded on the basis of time spent in the classroom, commonly known as "seat time." At secondary schools, credits are "commonly expressed in units, a unit generally being defined as one subject taken for 1 year, the class meeting 1 hour daily 5 days a week." (Good, 1973: 153 emphasis added) Depending upon the local school calendar the total number of hours a class will meet during the course of the year will vary. The number may range from 120 to 150 hours of classroom or laboratory time.

Postsecondary institutions use the "credit hour"--the equivalent of one hour's instruction per week in a given subject for a designated number of weeks in the term. Quarter hours are computed on the basis of a 12-week term, while semester hours are figured on an 18-week term. The amount of credit associated with a particular course depends upon the subject being taught (e.g., one hour of art history is generally worth more credit than one hour of drawing) and the number of hours the class is scheduled to meet.

Because credit is awarded on the basis of time spent in a class and in accordance with a course description prepared by the teacher, rather than on an assessment of what each student has learned, the kind of credit awarded depends on the subject of the course. Thus in work experience programs students earn work experience credits, in career exploration classes they earn career exploration credits, and in English classes they earn English credits.

BACKGROUND AND HISTORY

The establishment of vocational education in this country coincided with the beginnings of the formal progressive education movement. The Smith-Hughes Act authorizing federal funding of vocation education was passed in 1917. In 1918 the Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association published its "Seven Cardinal Principles of

Secondary Education." Included among these were vocation education, which the Committee advocated should be part of a comprehensive high school. (Bailey, 1977)

Then in 1939, one year after the progressive education movment had reached its peak (Cremin, 1964: 324), the American Council on Education criticised vocational education as being too narrow and specific. In Equal Educational Opportunity for Youth, the Council advocated a closer relationship between vocational and general education. The following year, the American Youth Commission of the Council introduced work experience as a necessary part of general education in its publication, What the High Schools Ought to Teach. (Bailey, 1977)

The movement toward the unification of vocational and academic education was essentially halted from the 1950's until the mid-sixties. The 1960's marked the beginning of the current education and work movement. In 1963 the Smith-Hughes Act was revitalized as the Vocational Education Act. From 1963 to 1968 24 major pieces of legislation were passed, including the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 and the Higher Education Act of 1965. The mid-sixties also gave rise to school critics like John Holt, Postman and Weingartner, Kohl, Goodman and Illich who advocated reforms ranging from a student-centered approach to education to the elimination of the school as such. It was just around this time, beginning in 1961 with passage of the Manpower and Development Training Act, that the federal government began playing a major role in vocational education and training programs with its efforts to serve those who were both out of school and out of work.

In-school work experience programs were first federally authorized under the 1968 Amendments to the Vocational Education Act of 1963. Called the Cooperative Education and Work Study programs, these parts of the Act enabled secondary and postsecondary schools to establish part-time employment programs for their students. The Cooperative Education program is intended as part of the students total vocational education. The work experience placement is to be in a position relevant to the student's occupational choice and training curriculum. The Work Study program is intended solely as a financial aid program to youngsters who would otherwise be unable to complete their schooling.

Vocational education and work experience programs were originally designed for low-income youth--students who would not be continuing their education beyond high school. High-school work experience programs were developed to: (1) validate a de facto situation (many youths had part-time jobs during the school year) and bring it within the realm of the school; and (2) teach students about paid employment while providing some economic assistance to those who might otherwise not be able to complete school. Circumstances have since changed the focus of these programs:

- low income, largely minority youth and their parents became aware of and opposed to what was, in effect, a two-track educational system that channeled them into vocational areas not requiring postsecondary education, while middle-class youngsters were directed toward academic, college-preparatory programs;
- significant numbers of white, middle-class youths sought alternatives to the college-preparatory program; and
- entrance to and continued participation in co-op and work experience programs became more and more dependent upon students' attitudes--as measured by past achievement, attendance, and discipline records--screening out problem students, large numbers of whom are from low income families, and others who do not function well in the standard curriculum.

Eventually, because high school vocational and work experience programs no longer served their intended populations, other programs funded by the Department of Labor, were developed. Some of these programs were established entirely outside the school systems and are designed for high-school dropouts. Others, especially the most recent ones established under YEDPA and CETA, have both in- and out-of-school components in order to help their participants either remain in or return to school.

High school work experience programs are an outgrowth of cooperative education, which was developed at the postsecondary level. In 1906 the Dean of the University of Cincinnati, Herman Schneider, established a program for engineering students whereby they alternated periods of study with periods of full-time employment at engineering companies. In 1921 Antioch College, in Yellowsprings, Ohio, became the first liberal arts college to offer its students a co-op program. Then in 1924 the General Motors Institute opened the first industry-sponsored co-op program.

Cooperative education spread slowly during the next forty years, largely in the fields of engineering and business. However, between 1962 and the present time a tremendous growth spurt resulted in approximately 1,000 postsecondary institutions offering some type of cooperative education to their students.

The definition of cooperative education as set forth by the Cooperative Education Division of the American Society for Engineering Education (CED/ASEE) is as follows:

> . . . the integration of classroom work and practical industrial experience in an organized program under which students alternate periods of attendance at college with periods of employment in industry, business or government. The employment constitutes a regular, continuing and essential element in the educational process, and some minimum amount of employment and minimum standard of performance are included in the requirements for a degree. The plan requires that a student's employment be related to some phase of the branch or field of study in which he is engaged, and that it be diversified in order to afford a spread of experience. It requires further that his industrial work shall increase in difficulty and responsibility as he progresses through his college curriculum, and in general shall parallel as closely as possible his progress through the academic phases of his education. (Heybourne, 1978: 336)

The CED/ASEE definition was universally accepted by postsecondary cooperative educators until co-op spread widely among two-year institutions and liberal arts colleges. In 1977 the Cooperative Education Association, which had worked in harmony with CED/ASEE until then, decided to establish itself as a separate organization because of definitional disagreements between the two groups. The Cooperative Education Association prefers a broader definition that includes a wide range of program structures and varying patterns of combining education and work. (Heybourne, 1978)

More recently developed programs have experimented with the original design developed by Schneider. As a result, some of the kinds of programs often labeled cooperative education include internships, professional practicums, "interlude" programs, universities without walls, and experiential education programs. (Collins in Keeton, 1971)

Much of the recent growth in co-op has taken place at two-year institutions. Nearly half of all cooperative education programs are now operated by two-year colleges. (Cohen et al, 1977) Most two-year programs focus on such trade and technical careers as auto repair, air conditioning maintenance, electronics technician, licensed practical nurse, dental assistant, laboratory technician, bookkeeper, clerical worker and accountant. These programs are much more likely than those at four- and five-year institutions to develop parallel work and schooling patterns.

Although cooperative education is much more widespread at the secondary than the postsecondary level of education in this country, few books and articles on co-op programs discuss them. The literature on the subject is heavily weighted toward college and university programs. High school co-op programs are usually categorized as work experience or vocational education and often the program itself is titled cooperative vocational education.

High school work experience programs fall into several categories. The traditional program involves part-time employment for students during the school year and full-time employment during the summer. Some programs require enrollment in a related instruction class, which often meets once or twice a week during lunch hour or before or after school. There are two other types of work experience programs: exploratory work experience and vocational work experience (often also called cooperative vocational education). In the former, students are usually not paid since they do not fill part-time jobs with one employer for the year, but rotate among several employers so they can observe a variety of jobs or careers in operation. Exploratory work experience programs are intended to help youngsters make decisions about the type of work they would like to pursue. Vocational work experience is patterned after postsecondary cooperative education programs, except students work part-time and go to school part-time. Their work placement is intended to relate to the occupational classes in which they are enrolled.

There are many other kinds of programs that, in effect, provide students with work experience, that may or may not earn them credit (academic or otherwise) and pay. These programs come under such rubrics as service-learning, experiential education, career education, and community education. What they have in common with work experience programs is their infusion of pragmatic concerns into the school curriculum and the opportunity they provide students to incorporate experience in the "real" world into their school experience. Where they are dissimilar is in the extent to which their requirements for participation and credit are "academic" in focus and whether the staff member responsible for the program is credentialed as a counselor, an instructor in a specific discipline, or as a work experience coordinator, career education specialist or vocational instructor.

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PLACEMENTS

Interestingly enough, although there is not much evidence one way or the other, there is a widespread belief that work experience placements in private sector jobs result in more positive outcomes for participants than placements in public sector jobs. (Council of Great City Schools, 1979; Iden et al, 1976; Mangum, 1978; Mangum and Walsh, 1978; Pines and Morlock, 1978, U.S. Congressional Budget Office, 1976; U.S. Department of Labor, Impacts of YEDPA on Education/CETA Relationships, 1978; Barton and Fraser, 1978, Vol. 2)

Some studies of cooperative education programs indicate very positive outcomes for students. A study conducted by Batelle Columbus Laboratories in 1973 (Barton and Fraser, 1978, Vol. 2) and another conducted by Hayes and Travis in 1976 (Barton and Fraser, 1978, Vol. 2) found that 46% and 53%, respectively, received and accepted offers of full-time employment after graduation. Only the Hayes and Travis study, however, identified the employers as members of the private sector. The problem with most studies of cooperative education programs is just that--distinctions are not made between public and private sector employers and therefore outcomes cannot be related to one or the other.

The Interim Report on Program Implementation of Youth Entitlement Demonstration (Ball et al, 1979) did make some comparison between public and private sector placements. However, these were limited to counts of the types of positions available in each sector; information supportive of the contention that the private sector offers students more varied experiences. The authors report that more than two-thirds of the reported job hours spent by students working in the public schools were in custodial and maintenance or clerical positions. (They also raise a concern about the nature of students' summertime experiences working at schools) Students who worked at other public agencies were reported to have similar job hour reports with the exceptions of more participant hours in groundskeeping and community worker and recreation aide positions. The final public sector category report was on nonprofit agencies. The two most heavily reported positions were child care worker and recreation aide. These figures are contrasted with those reported for private sector jobs.

> The private-sector emphasis of several programs contributed to 12 percent of all Tier I job hours and nearly 22 percent of Tier II job hours being spent by participants in jobs at private firms . . . Work in private firms tended to represent a different mix than jobs for public and nonprofit sponsors. (Ball et al, 1979: 102)

Although clerical and building maintenance occupations still predominated, food service workers came in a strong third (33.3%, 18.9% and 14.3% respectively). And in most sites "small 'mom and pop' restaurants . . . appeared to be the primary source of food service jobs." (Ball et al, 1978: 105) Other types of positions that were available only to participants in the private sector included sales, fabric and garment work, auto mechanics, service station operation, assembly and packaging, and warehousing/materials handling. These positions together comprised 35% of the reported job hours.

While this study confirms what everyone already knew, or at least strongly suspected, that the private sector can offer a wider range of entry-level positions for work experience students, it does not provide information on the differential impact of public versus private sector placements.

A 1968 survey of secondary agricultural work experience program staff members reported that placement of students in "commercial, out-of-school settings that provide real job experiences closely related to the student's course of study" was one of the procedures most high rated by program staff. Again, however, this does not provide evidence of differential impact.

Only two other reports were found that directly addressed the issue of the impact of the location of the work experience placement on students. Both of these (Edelstein, 1975; Sexton, 1976) based their information on research conducted by the Bureau of Applied Social Research (Columbia University, 1973) for the Office of Education (its report is titled Federal College Work-Study Program). These two reports used the Bureau of Applied Social Research's findings to support arguments that college work-study programs should expand their off-campus placements. The findings reported by Edelstein and Sexton state that most programs offered only on-campus employment. These jobs were reported to have little relationship to the participants' academic programs, were largely low-level clerical, security, maintenance and other campus support positions, and were reported to provide little job satisfaction to participants. In addition, of those institutions operating offcampus work-study programs, 75% were reported to be highly satisfied with it and felt it "not only increases the educational advantages to the student, but that it improved the institution's image in the community." (Sexton, 1976: 46)

The underlying issue of private versus public sector placements is subsidy of private business and substitution of adult workers with youths. Because policy makers feared a federally-supported youth employment program in the private sector would have these results, the youth employment programs have, with the exception of a few experiments, been limited to public sector placements. The VEPS experiment (Vocational Exploration in the Private Sector) which was conducted for two years (1971-1973) appears to have somewhat discounted this fear.

> ...employers not only failed to get rich from these limited wage subsidies but viewed the subsidy as only a partial offset to significant extraordinary costs which they incurred in providing part-time work experience and career exploration to disadvantaged youth. (Pines and Morlock, 1978: 13; Mangum and Walsh, 1978: 66)

Other reported outcomes of the program include the wide range of positions available to students (service 20.7%, operative 19%, clerical 27.8%, laborer 13.9%, sales 11.1%, craftsmen 6.5%); improved grade point averages of participants (62%, 32% declined); high school return rate (90.1% remained in school, 53.9% completed VEPS): and a high job placement rate after completing the program (69% remained with VEPS employers, 6.3% hired by other private work sites). (Sprengel and Tomey, 1974: 3-5)

Other studies link positive programmatic outcomes to post-program jobs (Walther, 1976; Pines and Morlock, 1978), but fail to expand on the nature of the relationship or specify whether such a correlation occurs more frequently in public or private sector work experience programs.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Unfortunately, the scarcity of data prevent drawing any conclusions about the differential impacts of private versus public sector placements. Logic tells us, and this at least appears to be supported, that there are much wider vocational opportunities in the private sector. Students can be exposed to a broader range of occupations there than in the public sector. Other possible differences that need verification include:

- higher post-program placement rate for private sector programs;
- higher private sector employment rate for private sector program completers;
- higher school retention rate for private sector programs; and
- greater participant satisfaction with type of placement in private sector programs.

These are differences that the VEPS study implies. However, the study was conducted nearly ten years ago and, until YEDPA, no other private sector research has been carried out.

Questions that need to be answered include:

- What impact, if any, would more extensive private sector work experience programs have on the labor market?
- What ratio of work experience and cooperative education program placements are in the private versus public sectors? Can data from these non-DOL-funded programs be analyzed to determine the differential impact of public and private sector placements?
- What is the correlation between placement site (public versus private sector, on-campus versus off-campus) and post-program employment status in the short and long run?
- How widely divergent, if at all, are the skills and knowledge that can be acquired at private versus public sector placements? How transferrable are these skills and knowledge?
- What are participants' perceptions regarding public and private sector work experiences? Do participants' view one or

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the other as more desireable? Do participants distinguish between the two?

No studies have been made to compare DOL-funded work experience programs with others. It would be useful to do so given the lack of restrictions on use of the private sector in those programs. It would, at the very least, be useful to learn whether there are differences in outcomes for participants of those programs who are placed in private sector slots as compared to those placed in public sector slots. (Not all work experience and cooperative education program placements are in the private sector.)

Finally, given the more recent focus on the development of non-occupationally related skills such as the ability to develop and execute plans, interpersonal skills, cooperative skills, processing and interpreting information, communication skills, problems solving skills, ability to accept and handle responsibility, and ability to accept direction (Mangum and Walsh, 1978: 74), research needs to be conducted to determine whether and how location of placement site might affect those outcomes. It is very possible that such outcomes will be more greatly affected by the personality and skill of the work supervisor than whether he or she is a public or private sector employee.

COOPERATIVE ARRANGEMENTS/COLLABORATION

The essential ingredients to effective cooperative efforts and interinstitutional linkages are the desire to establish relations among all parties and the ability to understand and work around one another's constraints. Most of the collaborative arrangements described in the literature are the result of past history and prior institutional and personal relationships. In places where there has been regular communication between local education agencies and CETA, it is continued and often leads to the development of innovative programs. Where no such history exists, or where prior relationships have been poor, collaborative efforts are strained and tend to follow the path of least resistance.

Nor is it clear exactly what collaboration or cooperation are or should be. There are few instances in the literature of specific examples of the forms collaborative arrangements might take. There are no studies on the comparative effectiveness of institutional linkages among the various constituences involved in providing education and employment services to youth.

INTERINSTITUTIONAL LINKAGES

A report prepared by Kirschner Associates (Blank, 1979) suggests a number of steps to facilitate cooperative efforts based on the experiences of the State of Maryland. These include:

1. early involvement of the LEA in designing the program;
2. establishment of a CETA/LEA liaison as a formal position that is part of the program or is an adjunct position filled by an individual who has credibility with the LEA (e.g., a former school board member);
3. regular and frequent meetings at both the administrative and staff levels of the LEA and CETA;
4. in-service meetings with school faculty to inform them about the program, its tarket population, and goals;
5. establishment of carry over funds to ease the disjunction between CETA and LEA funding cycles;

6. state-wide meetings of prime sponsors and schools to address issues, problems, and solutions;

7. development of technical assistance capacity at the state level;

8. placement of a staff person at each school site to coordinate the program; and

9. involvement of both CETA and LEA personnel in the hiring of program staff.

Mangum (1978) suggests that each state career education coordinator should be placed on the state manpower services council and that a local career education coordinator should sit on the prime sponsor's manpower advisory committee. He advocates the linking of career education with youth employment programs as a means of insuring that youth employment programs include career development components and as a method of linking the LEA and CETA. He even goes so far as to recommend requiring that every prime sponsor youth plan include a career development component. (Mangum, 1978: 45)

Most of the literature, however, speaks in more global terms when discussing the issue of collaboration. Colmen and Wurzburg (1979), for example, suggest that collaboration could be furthered through the joint development of legislation by education and manpower policy makers. (As a matter of fact, the new youth employment and training legislation is being rewritten with input from both education and manpower officials. In addition, education legislation currently underway is being designed so that it will complement the youth bill.) They also suggest that some CETA funds be channeled directly to the local level through the state as an incentive to participation by LEAs and an assurance of some measure of independence for them. Finally, they recommend the establishment of more realistic timetables by national policy makers.

Reports and case studies of the kinds of arrangements made at local sites indicate that each site must develop its own--that the process of coming to agreements is as important, if not more so, than the nature of the agreements reached. (National Council on Employment Policy, 1978; National Association of State Boards of Education, 1979; U.S. DOL, Impacts of YEDPA on Education/CETA Relationships, 1978, Ball et al, 1979)

> Although collaborations appear to be matters of procedure simply arranged, much more institutional identity is at stake than is first obvious. All partners need time to define roles and respective instructional responsibilities. (DeMeester, n.d.: 8)

Many arrangements are the result of obvious delineations of responsibility. In the University Year for ACTION programs, which are funded by ACTION and co-sponsored by the participating university and community or public service agencies, the collaborative structure is determined by the characteristics of the participating institutions and agencies. The university recruits and selects students, finds work assignments, evaluates learning and awards credit. The community and public service agencies provide job descriptions and supervise students' work on the job. ACTION provides students with stipends for off-campus living expenses and supports a university faculty member to supervise the students' learning and award credit. ACTION also provides per diem and travel to and from work sites for the faculty supervisor. (Graham, 1972)

A complicating factor in the establishment of institutional linkages is added by those areas that operate as consortia. Mirengoff and Rindler (1978) found that consortia are more politically sensitive than city or county prime sponsors, in part as a result of the desire by each member to get a fair share of the available resources, and in part because of the already existing tensions between urban and suburban communities. This delicate balance among members can be upset by racial or ethnic tensions and competition for scarce work experience slots in inner city industrial areas.

PRIVATE SECTOR ROLE

The role of the private sector in CETA programs has been almost entirely absent because of the legislative mandates and federal regulations prohibiting it. However, secondary schools and postsecondary institutions have established a variety of linkages with businesses, industry, and unions in an effort to insure that students graduating from cooperative education and vocational programs have the necessary skills and contacts to find work.

The linkages established take many forms. Most common are advisory committees or councils, composed of representatives from these three segments (business, industry, unions) who work with school personnel on curriculum, who help develop on-the-job training and work experience slots, and who, in effect, serve as a public relations group for the program. Such groups usually take an active role in helping to solve problems, modernizing and up-dating vocational programs, and opening doors in the private sector.

The Work-Education Councils project of the National Manpower Institute (funded by the Department of Labor) operate in much the same manner. These councils, composed of representatives from industry, commerce, labor, education, government, social service agencies and advocacy groups, are designed to bring together all constituencies concerned with helping youth make the transition from school to work. These groups are responsible for identifying the major local barriers to that transition and designing and implementing programs to overcome them. The exact form the specific program takes can range from the development of a clearinghouse for employer resources to publication of a directory of local career development programs or programs that provide educators with access to and experience in business, industry and labor. (National Manpower Institute, 1978; Gudenburg, 1976)

A close working relationship between local educators and employers can result in benefits for both. In Downey, California, for example, North American Rockwell's space division has been involved with local schools since 1964. It provides clerical and secretarial work experience to selected adult education students of one school district and supplies teachers and course materials for a junior college electronics and computer technology program. Another junior college offers college credit in fourteen courses to employees at the North American plant. (Banta and Marshall, 1970)

Many two-year postsecondary institutions have developed a program whereby courses are offered to employees of companies on the company grounds. (Banta and Marshall, 1970; Beman and Parsons, 1979; Granger and Moore, 1976) Similar programs have been developed in cooperation with public agencies at both two-and four-year institutions. (Hoffman, 1976; Central Michigan University, 1974)

At the secondary level in urban areas across the country (New York City, Newark, New Orleans, Atlanta, San Jose, Detroit and Dallas, to name a few), local companies have been making commitments to work cooperatively with educators to improve the schools. This very specific commitment to improve education is called "partnerships" or "adopt-a-school" programs. (Institute for Educational Development, 1969; Shive and Rogus, 1979) The result of this type of effort is the establishment of work experience or internship-like programs, development of new curriculum, workshops by employees on job-seeking and job-finding skills, and some job placement programs.

Linkages with the private sector in cooperative education and work experience programs also include the involvement of the work supervisor in identifying the competencies that can be acquired on the job and assessing the extent to which the student has acquired them. Although not used as extensively or effectively as is probably desireable, training plans or written agreements with employers help structure the students' experience and defined expected outcomes. Types of agreements used range from very simple forms stating the overall goal, dates of employment, names and titles of parties to the agreement, compensation provided (and by whom), and whether credit will be proved for the experience, to combined agreement/training plans that list behaviorally-stated objectives the student will be expected to achieve. However, although widely advocated by educators and program staff, written agreements are not as widely used as might be expected. (Peart, 1977: 63) More often, program staff rely in job descriptions provided by the employer and on oral communications and site visits as well as student reports. (Peart, 1977: 64)

The value of training plans is cited throughout the literature. (Cushman et al, 1968; Edelstein, 1975; Elias and Niederkorn, 1978; Johnston, 1978; Peart, 1977; Stull, 1977; White and Eley, 1976) Not only do they provide a written record of understanding among all parties involved, they provide a standard for assessing student development of competencies and facilitate the involvement of the work supervisor in assessing student performance.

TRANSFERABILITY OF CREDIT

Collaboration of educational institutions for the purpose of facilitating the transfer of credit is rare. The most extensive form of such collaboration exists within state postsecondary structures, whereby two-year institutions have been developed so that their programs are well-articulated with the state's four-year institutions. What that means, however, is that students are informed about the course requirements for transferring from the two- to the four-year institution, they are informed about the courses the institution requires and accepts, and the two-year college structures its collegepreparatory program to meet those requirements. This situation is similar for secondary institutions, which try to articulate their programs as much as possible so that students who complete the college preparatory program at the school encounter little or no trouble when seeking admission to the state's colleges and universities.

The transfer of credits is strictly within the purview of the accepting institution, be it a secondary school, college, or a university. The following factors are weighed when credit transfers are considered.

1. The characteristics of the receiving institution, its programs, and its degree requirements.
2. The transfer applicant's needs and educational and occupational objectives--past and present.
3. The characteristics of the institution or agency which awarded the credit (including, but not restricted to, its accreditation status)--for example, credit may be awarded by collegiate institutions, accredited and non-accredited; non-collegiate organizations, such as business, industry, and unions which offer courses and programs; armed forces; foreign institutions; and credit based on external examination.
4. The characteristics of the credit reported on the transcript:
    a. types or levels of credit--for example, remedial, baccalaurete, technical and/or occupational, professional, graduate, non-credit, etc.
    b. basis on which the credit was awarded--for example, traditional classroom credit, non-traditional credit (such as credit by examination, credit awarded on the basis of experiential learning, etc.), credit for

> military service, home studies/ correspondence, television courses, etc. (Wermers, 1978: iv)

In addition, postsecondary institutions distinguish between acceptance of credit for admission to the school and acceptance of credit toward a specific degree.

Similar circumstances are considered by secondary schools when a transfer of credit is requested.

Only two studies were found that addressed the issue of transferrability of work experience credit. Both of these were studies of postsecondary institutions and both were conducted more than 10 years ago. A 1966 study by Lauda compiled the findings of several surveys of postsecondary institutions. Among these was a 1964 survey of 54 institutions of which 41 responsed. Fifty-seven percent of the respondents stated that they would accept credit for work experience from a transfer student. Another survey, reporting information compiled from 201 institutions in the United States and Puerto Rico, noted that 43 institutions responded to a question about acceptance of transfer credits. Of these 20 (43.5%) reported they would accept credit based on work experience from a transfer student and the remainder (23) said they would not, that the student would have to be reexamined.

The other study was conducted in 1967 by Wayne Purtzer, who sent a survey instrument to the department chairmen of 80 schools listed in the Industrial Teacher Education Directory. He received 48 usable responses. He sought information about required grade point averages for transfer students, restrictions on the acceptance of transfer credit, procedures, and general admissions and degree requirements. The size of the sample and the lack of consistent responses across institutions prevented the author from reaching any clearcut conclusions.

The major barrier to the transferrability of work experience or other experience-based credits is the wide diversity in the criteria and methods for awarding such credit. Even though the great majority of schools at the secondary level award credits on the basis of time, the formula used varies considerably. Some schools stipulate a two-for-one formula that requires the student to spend twice as many hours on the job as in the classroom for the same amount of credit. The basis for computing formulas also varies. That is, one school may require 132 hours of class time as the base while another requires only 120 or another requires 150. Thus the two-for-one formula could range from a low of 240 hours to a high of 300. At the same time, there is great diversity across programs in the quality of that time.

Terminology also causes confusion. All too often researchers use the term "credit" and "unit" interchangeably. A unit stands for more than one credit (see Definition of Terms, page 4), usually on the basis of ten to one. Some schools record units on students' transcripts while others record credits. Thus one school might require 20 units for graduation and another 200 credits. A single course would, in the first instance, carry from .5 to 1.0 units and, in the second, from 5 to 10 credits.

Some schools use credits rather than units because it enables them to award variable amounts--that is, credits in multiple amounts ranging from 2 or 3 all the way up to 15 or 20. This method offers greater flexibility and allows for more individualization. The unit, also called the carnegie unit after the man who conceived it, limits the quantities in which credit can be awarded to multiples of five. Schools using the unit as a basis for their credit system usually do not award credit in amounts smaller than .5 or larger than 1.5 for a single course.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As long as there are no common criteria and standards for awarding work experience credit, and as long as the methods of awarding credit vary widely, the acceptance of credit awarded by one institution at another will be limited. Gutcher and Mast (1977) contend that the development of a "nationally acceptable system of evaluating work experience to award college credit" is dependent upon the development of "valid and reliable instrumentation, adequate norms, interpretive materials, and standards," which, in turn, will lead to the transferrability of such credits.

Because the establishment of linkages and collaborative arrangements is a process that must take place at the local level, the kind of research that might yield the most productive information is one that examines the processes used at a select number of sites. The thrust of the youth employment program is to effect change in the structures and systems that provide services to youth. Change is a process that involves a multiplicity of forces that both impede and facilitate change. These need to be studied to determine whether there are patterns that can be identified and to identify information and action that could be taken by others to help reduce the effects of hindering forces.

The lack of consistent information about credit practices at secondary schools warrants a survey of schools and programs to determine policies and procedures for transfer of work experience credits. The information available in the literature focused primarily on postsecondary institutions.

CREDIT

There is a dearth of information extant on the credit practices of work experience and related high school programs across the country. Inconsistencies within program models (such as Experience-Based Career Education) and from school to school and district to district compound the difficulties inherent in describing school credit practices. Nor has the literative served to clarify the problem. Instead researchers, especially some of those who recently have begun to closely examine the impact of YEDPA and the 1978 CETA legislation, have added to the problem by not taking care to define their terms or obtain specifics from program staff.

TYPES AND AMOUNTS OF CREDIT AWARDED

The recent Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation (Ball et al, 1979) study of the youth entitlement demonstration is a case in point. In the interim report the authors cite the credit practices of several of the sites under study.

- Baltimore, where "one-half of one academic credit was awarded for 132 hours experience if the youths worked steadily for a period of time."
- Denver, which was "more generous, with five credit hours awarded for every 250 hours of work."
- Albuquerque, which "offered one school course credit per semester to each youth in Entitlement who worked 240 hours a semester and participated in job readiness courses offered by school counselors."
- Berkeley, where students could earn "10 academic credits per semester" if they "attended either the regular or alternative high school." Ball et al, 1979: 144)

In actuality, every site noted above is awarding credit on a two-for-one basis. The variations are due to differences in the base number of hours and the fact that some sites are using credits and others are computing units. Baltimore, for example, records carnegie units and uses 132 as the base number of hours for a standard course. Thus, work experience students can only earn .5 units for 132 hours of work while students in an English class would earn

1.0 units for a 132-hour class. Denver, no doubt, is using a similar system. However, rather than recording units it records credits. Therefore, the five credit hours students earn in Denver for 250 hours of work is comparable to the .5 Baltimore allowed. In fact, Baltimore is the more generous site. Albuquerque uses the same system as Denver, but has a base figure of 120 instead of 125, and is more generous since it does not require a two-for-one computation. However, Albuquerque does require attendance in a related course--whose hourly attendance requirements are not reported. Finally, the Berkeley program is evidently working on the basis of credits, instead of units, making it comparable to Albuquerque. However, we are not informed of the base number of hours used for computing the credits assigned.

Unfortunately, the authors do not fully understand what they are reporting and do not realize the definitional problems inherent in discussions of credit. The type of credit awarded is not identified except by use (misuse) of the term "academic". Very few programs enable high school students to earn academic credits through experiencebased kinds of programs. Most record the credit as work experience or career development credit on students' transcripts. For students not planning to seek entrance to college this causes no problems and may, in fact, be helpful. However unless and until surveys of the credit practices of schools with regard to work experience and other experience-based programs are conducted in such a way that distinctions among the kinds and amounts of credit awarded, and the methods and criteria used to award the credit, can be made, we will not be able to make any final judgments about their comparative value.

CREDIT ASSIGNMENT PROCEDURES

There are a few programs that do award academic credit for experiential activities. Experience-Based Career Education is one program model designed to do just that. The Executive High School Internships programs also offer students credit in the course areas required for graduation. These programs are able to award academic credit because they use a credit assignment model that is not based on time, but on performance or on the basis of satisfactory participation in a program designed and judged to carry a certain credit value.

The Executive High School Internship program and some of the Northwest Laboratory's EBCE programs award credit on the basis of satisfactory completion of the program. The program is considered to enable participants to acquire knowledge and skills over the period of time of a single term or a year comparable to that which the students would normally learn in class. Thus the students are awarded credits in those subjects required at that grade level (e.g., sophomore, junior, senior) plus electives that reflect the unique content of the program. For students in the internship program it might mean elective business or social science credits. For EBCE students the credits would vary considerably, depending on their individual programs.

The Far West EBCE model is an example of performance-based credit assignment. In this program student project requirements were designed so that an individual project could be translated into variable credits. Every student project is expected to meet the following minimal requirements:

- Basic skills: effective use of at least one method of acquiring and one method of communicating information.
- Application of problem-solving skills in the investigation of a significant problem in the career/subject field under study.
- Career development: acquisition of reasonably extensive information about two careers in the field and an evaluation of those careers against the student's own interests, values, goals, and abilities; or acquisition of some specific career entrance skills.
- Content goals: understanding (ability to use, not just define) at least five major concepts, ideas, skills or techniques appropriate to the subject area in which the student desires to earn credit. (Chatham and Johnson, 1976: 101)

A student who satisfactorily completes a project meeting the above requirements is awarded five credits (.5 carnegie units) in one or more subject areas, depending upon the content and skills learned. For example, a single project could earn a student 2 credits in English and 3 in American government. Time is used as a check against the quantity and quality of learning reflected by the project. While some students might be able to complete such a project in 50 hours (including both time spent with resources and completing the products for the project), others might need 90 hours.

However, any student claiming to have completed such a project in 30 hours would be seriously questioned.

Students who work better in smaller units can plan two or three consecutive projects to meet the requirements for five credits. The kind of credit awarded is based upon the skills, concepts, and techniques the student acquires through the project. Five Project Planning Packages (Commerce, Communications and Media, Life Science, Physical Science and Social Science) offer guidelines for determining the kinds of learning that warrant credits in specific areas. (Banker, Chatham et al, 1976)

A few work experience programs have begun to incorporate some performance-based credit assignment techniques into their system. The entitlement program of the city consortium prime sponsor in Maryland is an example. There students are awarded .5 units of credit for 132 hours of work experience (a typical two-for-one formula). However, students' work performance is evaluated using a form called the Employee Progress Report or EPR. Students are rated on a scale of one to five (five equals excellent, one equals unsatisfactory) on thirteen qualities including:

- amount of work completed
- knowledge of job
- overall quality of work
- ability to follow directions
- initiative
- attendance
- interest-motivation
- dependability
- personal appearance
- communication (oral, written)
- response to criticism
- self control
- getting along with others

The employer is then asked to rate the student on the basis of whether, if a position were available, the student would be recommended to fill it (also on a scale of one to five, with five equaling a definite yes and one a definite no). The student is rated near the end of each semester and must receive an overall score of 2.5 for each EPR in order to obtain the credit. Thus, while the credit assignment is not strictly performance-based, performance provides a check against time and insures a minimum standard of performance by the participants. The limitation of the method is that students are only rated once a semester at the end of the term. If they were rated three or four times each semester not only could the evaluation serve as an early warning signal for youngsters having problems, but progress over the course of the term could be tracked and each participant would have a better chance of obtaining a 2.5 average for the term.

TRANSFERABILITY OF CREDIT

As discussed in the section on Cooperative Arrangements/Collaboration, the major barrier to the transferrability of credit is the lack of accurate information about the specifics of school credit assignment systems. This is not so much a problem at the postsecondary as it is on the secondary level of education.

The American Council on Education publishes the Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services (1974) and a similar document on Evaluating Apprenticeship Training for College Level Credit (1978). These two publications, which are regularly up-dated to incorporate new programs and courses, evaluates each course or program, makes semester credit hour recommendations, provides a course description, and recommed a category of credit (e.g., vocational/certificate, technical/associate degree, upper division baccalaureate degree, or graduate degree). However, the information provided by these publications is only a recommendation. The final decision is made by the institution to which the student applies.

There is no such similar document at the secondary level, so far as this author knows. Nor is there anything comparable to the Report to the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admission Officers on Transfer Credit Practices of Selected Educational Institutions (Wermers (ed.), 1978) at the secondary level.

AWARDING OF CREDIT FOR SUMMER WORK EXPERIENCES

There is little mention in the literature of summer work experience programs that award credit. A summary of reports on the Summer Youth Employment Program (Brandeis University, 1979) makes no mention of credit. Evidently none of the programs have been able to make the necessary arrangements to be able to award students credit for their summer work experience participation.

A report on youth employment programs in the State of Maryland states that

> A number of program coordinators mentioned that it would be advantageous to operate the program year-round, and thus give a greater number of students an opportunity to earn academic credit. However, it has been difficult to obtain school personnel that could be hired for the summer and some of the systems have not been eager to extend the program over vacation. (Blank, 1979: 29)

In order to be able to award credit for summer work experience programs the school must be involved and there must be a certificated teacher (or work experience coordinator) on the staff. This entails extra expenditures for the school district. It means the students must enroll in summer school (and cannot be dropouts), that sufficient time and personnel be made available to perform the tasks necessary for enrollment in the program, and that there be sufficient staff hired for the summer program to supervise the students' work, assess their performance, and record progress, performance and credits earned.

Schools do not have the budget to conduct extensive summer work experience programs for credit. In communities across the country summer school is being eliminated. This is especially true in California because of the budget reductions due to Proposition 13. In addition, districts are extremely reluctant to establish programs that have uncertain funding futures since they do not want to start something they may be expected to continue even though continued funding may not be available.

> In some cases communities do not have the resources to pay for expanded education programs. Furthermore, small, relatively poor

> school districts are reluctant to institute new programs with federal or other funds unless they feel confident that the additional services can be maintained over a period of time without creating an undue burden on their tax dollars. They do not want to build up expectations and get people used to services which cannot be absorbed into local budgets. Because of YEDPA's original one-year authorization, the long-term funding issue remains and is of concern especially to smaller, conservative towns. (U.S. DOL, Impacts of YEDPA on Education/CETA Relationships, 1978: 25)

Although the above authors state that this concern is especially true for smaller districts, large urban districts are having as many budget problems as the small ones. Nor are they any less subject to public criticism for starting programs they cannot continue. Only those districts that are operating summer school programs and that can afford to add on to those programs are likely to be receptive. However, even they will require some financial incentives to do so.

One program that is offering summer work experience students credit is operated by the City of Duluth Prime Sponsor and the Duluth Public Shools. The students, sixty-five high school students, earn .5 units for completing "a successful work experience" and .5 units for participation in a program of weekly four-hour job-seeking seminars. The program was funded by a combination of state summer school aid, secondary vocational aid, Summer Programs for Economically Disadvantaged funds, and funds from the Governor's Youth Program. (Minnesota Department of Education, 1979: 33)

Out-of-school youth cannot earn secondary credit. The only option that might be available would be a program in cooperation with a two-year institution which could, if willing, award high-school dropouts credit for their work experience.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Unless researchers and policy makers alike take more care in their use of terms the issue of awarding credit for work experience will remain confused. The awarding of academic credit will not be possible without the use of a performance-based assessment method.

Academic credit may not be the issue in youth employment programs, however. If, in fact, elective credit will achieve the results sought, that is, provide sufficient incentive to participants to remain in (or return to) school and complete their education, then the Department of Labor does not need to become embroiled in the controversy over competency-based education. If I presume correctly that the reports on youth employment programs use the term "academic" credit as a synonym for work experience (or other elective credit such as career development) credit, then this supposition may well be true.

On the other hand, academic credit may be a more useful incentive to certain types of participants. In which case, some research should be undertaken to determine whether there are differential impacts on program participants when different types of credit are awarded. Such information may help policy makers decide what it is they really want from the schools and thus enable attention to focus on the development of effective methods and strategies to achieve it.

Current credit practices of secondary schools need to be surveyed. Where academic credit is in fact being awarded, detailed information about the procedures and criteria used for awarding the credit need to be provided. If a program evaluation method is used then the criteria for satisfactory participation and the methods used in designing the program to be judged worthy of credit need spelling out. Furthermore, the exact amount and types of credit students earn through such programs should be documented. If the experience designed for credit method is used, the site development procedures should be documented as well as the criteria and standards for credit assignment, methods of assessing student performance, and the roles of school, CETA, and employers should be specified. Again, information about the number and types of credit students earn through such programs should be surveyed so that the extent to which the methods have been effectively used can be determined.

With the compilation of current practices across the country it might be possible to begin making the transfer of work experience credits more feasible. The credit transfer policies and procedures of secondary schools should be a part of such a nationwide survey.

The problem of awarding credit for summer work experience requires two things: (1) evidence that youth employment program funding will have stability, and (2) financial incentives to the schools for providing a summer school work experience program. Although prime sponsors could work with community-based organizations and seek state accreditation as a private school, thus allowing them to award the credit themselves, this could only be done on a very limited scale. It is more practical to provide financial assistance to the schools, either in direct costs or by supporting staff positions (or a combination of both), and help them operate the summer youth employment program as a summer school program. Questions that need answering include:

- To what extent will the schools respond to financial incentives for operating a summer program?
- What restrictions will schools want to place on the program to meet their criteria of acceptability for credit? For example, will they want students to work less than full-time so they can attend some type of related class in order to be awarded credit?
- Will schools want to open the program to a broader category of students?
- What are the comparative impacts of a summer program targeted to CETA-eligible youth that does not award credit and one (with a mixed and without a mixed population) that does.

APPENDIX: POLICY QUESTIONS RAISED BY YOUTHWORK AND DOL

POLICY ISSUES TO BE ADDRESSED IN THE LITERATURE REVIEW:
FOCUS AREA: ACADEMIC CREDIT FOR WORK EXPERIENCE

The following issues represent the most salient and current concerns around which the literature review must be focused. The material examined during the literature review must be examined with respect to each of the following issues.

1. What forms of collaboration among employment, training, educational (including colleges and universities), and rehabilitation institutions (including CBO's) are the most effective and the most successful in facilitating the school-to-work transition sequence? Specifically, what forms of collaboration and what structural arrangements improve programs of academic credit and best serve the young people in terms of placing them in private sector, unsubsidized jobs after program completion?

2. What do we know about the relative effect and value of private sector vs. public sector programmatic experience in terms of skills acquired, later (after program) job placement, career and educational success, and overall (long-term) employability? To what extent does what type of programmatic experience change/alter the impact as a result of the age of the participants?

3. What do we know about the types of academic credit, e.g., elective, required, for basic skills, for coping skills, etc., which are currently being awarded, by what kinds of institutions, for what kinds of work experience, and for the attainment of what competencies? How can classroom experiences and approaches be changed to reinforce work experiences? (The intent of this question is to develop as complete a picture as possible of the types of academic credit which various institutions award for varying kinds of work experience.)

4. What do we know about the placement of the work sites? Is it inside or outside a school system? Does the placement for the work experience affect the quality and the kinds of information, competencies, and skills acquired by the participants? If so, what kind of effect does it have? How can work sites which are part of an academic credit program be better managed and maintained to help achieve better program quality? This question incorporates Academic Credit item #5 from the 1978 Youthwork Application Guidelines.

5. Identify and describe the procedures for determining the awarding of academic credit and the measuring of competencies, basic as well as coping and occupational skills. (The intent of this question is, among others, to determine the institutional context and support for less conventional means for awarding academic credit for work experience.) Specific questions will include: How can school personnel and systems be motivated for and made more knowledgeable about the techniques and values of awarding academic credit for work, including new or improved approaches? This question incorporates Academic Credit item #4 from the 1978 Youthwork Application Guidelines.

6. To what extent do we know if academic credits awarded to participants are transferrable to other institutions, both within the same and in different school systems? (The intent of this questions is to determine the extent to which the academic credit is idiosyncratically awarded and has little utility outside of that institution, thus locking the participant into that school and providing him/her with few transferrable resources.) What do we know about the linkages between the kinds of work experience and the kinds of academic credit that are being awarded in differing locales? What do we know in particular about the differences in awarding academic credit for the same types of experience in differing school districts? Are there differences among states, with particular reference to the adoption of competency based curricula contrasted with areas/states where such curricula are not used. This question incorporates Academic Credit item #3 from the 1978 Youthwork Application Guidelines.

7. What do we know about how the private sector can assist schools in identifying competencies developed, assessing youth work performance, and improving and expanding efforts to accredit work experience?

8. How can summer youth work be designed and structured to meet school requirements for award of academic credit, reinforcing school-year work?

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This paper is the second part of the grant's final project report, entitled Career and Vocational Education in the 1980's: Toward a Process Approach. The first part summarizes activities related to the reprinting and dissemination of a monograph prepared under another grant. The monograph discussed the continued evolution of Bailey's theory of career education, which is rooted in humanistic psychology and career development theory. This document reviews the literature and research with regard to: the quality of working life; the career education movement; the reform of secondary education; manpower development; and the reappraisal of vocational education philosophy and purpose. It draws conclusions and makes recommendations for the Department of Adult, Vocational and Technical Education of the Illinois Office of Education.

Ball, Joseph, William Diza, Josh Leiman, Sheila Mandel and Kenneth McNutt. The Youth Entitlement Demonstration: An Interim Report on Program Implementation. New York, New York. Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation. April 1979.

An interim report on the entitlement subtitle of the YEDPA legislation of 1977, it includes chapters on the role of schools in implementing the entitlement program and on preliminary findings resulting from MDRC's study. The major issue related to CETA/LEA collaboration and coordination with the entitlement program had to do with the establishment and enforcement of minimal attendance and academic standards for continuing participation in the program by eligible students. Since schools are designed to serve all students most have few or no standards regarding appropriate attendance or academic standing for continued enrollment. Standards exist for graduation, not enrollment. In addition, it is to the disadvantage of schools to expell students for poor attendance and academic records since they lose ADA funding from the state on the basis of the number of bodies in attendance. Other problems included flexible scheduling to enable participants to have sufficient time to get to work and spend at the job site, and the awarding of credit for their work experience. Reports of methods used to award credit and the amounts and types of credit awarded are not sufficiently detailed to enable cross-site comparisons.

Banker, Nancy Sirmay. *Knowledge Development Guidebook: Academic Credit for Work Experience*. Draft of a document under publication by Youthwork, Inc., Washington, D.C., 1978.

A guidebook to YEDPA program operators to help them plan and carry out knowledge development activities mandated by the legislation. This document is specifically focused upon knowledge development concerns of programs that seek to award academic credit to their participants. It provides an array of research questions that programs could address, suggests methods of collecting data to answer those questions, and offers guidelines for planning knowledge development activities and incorporating them into the operating process.

Banker, Nancy, Karen M. Chatham *et al.*, James N. Johnson (ed). *Experience-Based Career Education: The Far West Model*. Four Volumes. San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1976.

This four-volume work contains operational guidelines, examples, forms, procedures, and complete information regarding the Far West Laboratory model of EBCE. The volumes include information on managing and administering a program, recruiting and developing resources, the guidance and instruction component, and methods of assessing learning and awarding academic credit.

Barclay, Suzanne, Christine Botton, George Farkas, Ernst W. Stromsdorfer (Abt Associates, Inc.) and Randall J. Olsen (Yale University). *Schooling and Work Among Youths From Low-Income Households: A Baseline Report from the Entitlement Demonstration*. New York, New York. Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation. April 1979.

Provides descriptive information regarding the youth entitlement program, analyses the policy and methodological issues of the study, and presents preliminary conclusions based on the available data.

Barton, Paul E. and Bryna Shore Fraser. *Between Two Worlds: Youth Transition From School to Work*. Three Volumes. A synthesis of knowledge, a summary of program evaluations and a research and experimentation strategy. Washington, D.C.: National Manpower Institute, Center for Education and Work, August 1978.

This three-volume work addresses the current state of youth transition programs and the major issues and problems that must be faced if youths are to be helped in making the transition from school to work. Volume 1 spells out existing problems, conditions, and issues. Volume 2 compiles and summarizes the major evaluation studies of transition programs.

Volume 3 suggests a strategy for carrying out further research and experimentation in this area.

Beister, Thomas W. Evaluation of Cumulative Effects of RBS Career Education, 1974-1976. Philadelphia, PA: Research for Better Schools, Inc., 1976.

This report presents data collected during a two-year period using control and experimental groups. The data focus primarily on student outcomes.

Beister, Thomas W., Mark W. Blair and Keith M. Kershner. Replication of RBS Career Education: The 1976-1977 Pilot Site Effort. Philadelphia, PA: Research for Better Schools, Inc., 1977.

This is a report of findings that resulted from the evaluation of RBS' pilot sites. The report analyses student outcome data and participant opinions and perceptions. The primary emphasis on the evaluation was to determine whether student effects demonstrated in previous evaluations were replicated at the pilot sites.

Bernhardt, Vickie L. and Thomas R. Owens. Experience-Based Career Education: Evaluation Synthesis of Second Year Pilot Sites, 1976-77. Draft for Review and Discussion Only. Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1978.

This unpublished paper compiled data from all four laboratories--Far West Laboratory, Northwest Laboratory, Research for Better Schools, and Appalachia Laboratory--in order to synthesize evaluation data each had obtained from programs implementing their EBCE models. The purpose of the report is to describe common outcomes demonstrated across all four models and across the ten pilot sites studied.

Blank, Rolf. An Analysis of Academic Credit for Work Experience and Transition Services in CETA-LEA Programs. A report prepared for the National Association of State Boards of Education Task Force and the Maryland State Department of Education, April 1979. Washington, D.C. Kirschner Associates, Inc. 1979.

Reports on the issues and barriers related to the awarding of academic credit faced by the State of Maryland and the actions taken by state and local officials to overcome barriers and resolve the issues. The actions taken include insuring that there is a staff person in each school participating in the CETA program to supervise students work experience activities and smooth logistical and programmatic operations; providing follow-up services to participants after completing or terminating the program and after graduation from school; establishing the work experience program as part of a comprehensive program of employability skills training; establishing a liaison person to maintain open communications between CETA and LEA personnel and organizational structures.

Bonham, George W. (Ed. in Chief). Change: The Magazine of Learning. Special Issue: Education and Work--Two Worlds or One? A special issue presenting the comments and papers of fifty authorities on the issues related to how colleges and universities can serve adults in transition. July-August 1979.

In cooperation with the Harvard Graduate School of Education, Change Magazine conducted a colloquium on education and work transition issues for adults and postsecondary institutions. Included in the issue are the papers presented by participants and the discussions they engendered. Issues discussed included lifelong learning, education and leisure, new workers, career changes and enrichment of workers' lives.

Breen, Paul, Thomas F. Donlop and Urban Whitaker. Teaching and Assessing Interpersonal Competence--A CAEL Handbook. Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service, CAEL, 1977.

A complete text, including theory with regard to personal and work-related interpersonal skills and interactions, administrative procedures for teaching interpersonal skills in sponsored experiential education programs, assessment strategies, and a variety of sample materials such as course outline and agreement form. The discussion of adaptive functional, and specific content skills (pp. 22-33) may be particularly useful to understanding and describing some of the skills needed by YEDPA program participants. The models of interpersonal competence described on pages 34-38 offer insight into some of the kinds of skills youth might have an opportunity to acquire on the job.

Cates, Jim C, and Norvell Northcutt. Competency-Based High School Diploma. A proposal submitted to the Associate Administrator for Policy, Evaluation and Research, Employment and Training Administration, U.S. DOL, dated March 1976. Submitted by The University of Texas at Austin, Division of Extension, Industrial and Business Training Bureau, Austin, Texas.

This proposal, which was funded by ETA, proposes to develop a program by which participants can obtain a compentency-based high school diploma. The C-B HSD would be awarded on the basis of tests (primarily the Adult Performance Learner tests developed by the proposal authors) and activities designed to demonstrate proficiency. The C-B HSD would be awarded for both "generalized" competencies and for demonstrated performance in either an occupational/vocational area, an advanced academic area, or in an advanced specialized area. The participant must score at a certain level on the APL competency test or pass APL mastery tests.

Cohen, Alan J., Robert T. Deane and Steven Frankel. Cooperative Education--A National Assessment: Executive Summary. Covers period of performance during July 1975 to November 1977. Prepared for the Postsecondary Education Programs Division of the Office of Planning, Budgeting and Evaluation; Office of Education, U.S. DHEW. Contract No. OE-300-75-0343. Silver Spring, Maryland. Applied Management Sciences, Inc. 1977. ERIC No. ED148-236.

Provides information about postsecondary cooperative education programs nationwide. Defines cooperative education, discusses benefits to participants, describes limitations to expansion, analyses the role of the federal government in its development, and presents suggestions for the future.

Collins, A. Michael. *Dual Enrollment as an Operating Engineer Apprentice and an Associate Degree Candidate*. Final Report. Washington, D.C.: National Joint Apprenticeship and Training Committee for Operating Engineers, International Union of Operating Engineers. December 1975. ERIC No. ED131233.

This is a report that documents the processes and outcomes of the dual enrollment program, a project funded by the Department of Labor to demonstrate the feasibility and outcomes of combining college enrollment with participation in an operating engineer apprenticeship program. It provides information about how the project was established, the problems entailed in establishing cooperative relations between colleges and apprenticeship programs, the objectives of the project, the curricula developed for it, results and recommendations. Appendices include information about course requirements of the participating postsecondary institutions and national standards for operating engineer apprenticeships.

Colmen, Joseph and Gregory Wirzburg. *Involving Schools in Employment and Training Programs*. Washington, D.C.: National Council on Employment Policy, May 1979. Prepared for Office of Program Evaluation, Employment and Training Administration, U.S. DOL. Report MEL 79-15. Contract No. 23-11-77-06.

Analyses reasons for hostility between employment and training and education institutions--isolation of two systems, tendency of the first to blame the second for problems it is trying to solve, lack of participation by educators in the development of YEDPA legislation, divergent structures and funding cycles.

Corder, Reginald, *et al*. *External Evaluator's Final Reports on the Experience-Based Career Education Programs*. Nine Volumes. Berkeley, CA: Educational Testing Service, 1976.

This extensive study reported by ETS incorporated a variety of evaluation approaches. An ethnographic or anthropological study was conducted on each of the demonstration programs of the four laboratories. The report also presents participant observations, an interorganizational analysis of the multi-year, multi-organizational research and development effort that resulted in the EBCE model, and a report of student outcomes and participant opinions of EBCE.

Council of Great City School. Youth Employment and Training Programs and the Urban School: Profiles and Commentary. Washington, D.C. Youth Employment Assistance Project, Council of Great City Schools. August 1979.

The report examines YETP programs in five cities: Atlanta, Pittsburg, Dade County (Miami), Chicago, and Portland, Oregon. Each program's particular characteristics are described including such things as how the private sector has been involved and whether or not the awarding of academic credit is an issue. Each program has a slightly different focus ranging from counseling (Atlanta) to cooperative education (Dade County) and entrepreneurialism (Portland).

Craig, Joyce L. The School-To-Work Transition Program: A Process Model for Linking Career Education Programs With In-School CETA Youth Programs. DOL ETA Technical Assistance and Training System, Region VI, Dallas, Texas, 2/77. Final Report on the Development of Program Process Models for...Contract #JC 48-0716006.

This three-ring binder of materials includes (1) a workshop agenda, training format, goals and objectives, and statement of rationale for the training program; (2) a paper titled "Career Education: A Brief Look at Its Development and Current Status"; (3) a section on self-awareness, decision-making and human relations skills; (4) information on occupational information resource centers; (5) information about the Camp Gary Job Corps Center program, rules and curriculum; and (6) a description of the model itself. Evidently, no provisions are made for awarding credit for work experience in the model described.

Cushman, Harold R., et al. The Development and Improvement of Directed Work Experience Programs in Expanded Vocational Education Offerings in Agriculture at the Secondary School Level. Final Report. Ithaca, New York: State University of New York, College of Agriculture at Cornell, 1968.

This report presents findings resulting from a pilot test of procedures and guidelines developed for use in work experience programs directed by secondary high schools. In addition to reporting the results of that test the publication also draws conclusions about the effectiveness of work experience programs and the best methods and procedures for quality programs.

DeMeester, Lynn. Collaborations for Combining Career and Liberal Education. Reports from the Fund. Washington, D. C. Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education, Education Division, U.S. DHEW. n.d.

Reports on the Fund's program of projects that support and stimulate the establishment of collaborations for combining career and liberal education. These projects fall into the following categories: (a) merged degree programs; (b) programs that extend beyond postsecondary institutions; and (c) overcoming credit barriers.

Edelstein, Fritz. A Guide to Operating an Off-Campus College Work-Study Program. Washington, D.C. National Association of Student Financial Aid Administrators and Project for Service-Learning, American Association of Community and Junior Colleges. May 1975. ERIC No. ED111243.

The Guide offers suggestions for how to develop and operate or expand off-campus College Work/Study Programs. It is intended as a supplement to the U.S. Office of Education's College Work-Study Manual. Here the author advocates greater use of off-campus job placements for program participants because of the greater financial and career development benefits that can result. The author presents information about these benefits and statistical data to support his contention.

Evenson, Jill and Nancy Banker. "Utility of Community-Based Learning Resources." A paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York City, April 1977.

In this paper the authors re-examine evaluation data collected on three Far West Laboratory EBCE pilot programs in order to determine the extent to which the community can be used as a learning resource. The authors conclude that the data support the feasibility of the Far West EBCE approach, but that the quality of learning outcomes depends in large part upon the nature and quality of the development of the community resources.

Ferrin, Richard I. and Arbeiter, Solomon, (Project Director and Co-Director, respectively) Bridging the Gap: A Study of Education-to-Work Linkages. Final Report of the State-Level Study in Career Education. Prepared by the College Entrance Examination Board for the Education and Work Group, NIE Contract No. NIE-C-74-0146, June 18, 1975.

This two-volume document (the main and Supplemental Report) describe the findings of a study of the education-to-work transition, the barriers that make the transition difficult for many individuals, and the range of mechanisms that are or might be used to link the worlds of education and work. The first volume reports the methods and research approach used, how the study was limited, the survey of current linkages conducted, the analysis and interpretation of the survey findings, alternative linkages that could be established, barriers to and proposals for linkages, and recommendations for further research and development by NIE. The second volume examines current linkages in greater detail and presents the researchers' observations and impressions based upon interviews with state and local representatives.

Fischer, Ruth. "The City Peace Corps." Change, 6, 2, 20-23. March 1974.

This article reports on the activities and outcomes of the Urban Corps of New York City, which was created by the then newlyelected Mayor John V. Lindsay. The Program was begun under HEW's College Work Study Program and was the first one to offer students jobs on the college campus.

Frankel, Steven M. Executive Summary: An Assessment of School-Supervised Work Education Programs. System Development Corporation. Prepared for U.S. DHEW, OE's Office of Planning, Budgeting and Evaluation, September 14, 1973.

This document summarizes the significant findings, overall methodology, and policy recommendations that resulted from a study conducted by SDC to examine the different configurations of work education programs that existed in the U.S. in 1973. The study was designed to determine the degree to which different types of programs met their intended objectives and to suggest ways in which they might be modified or expanded. The kinds of programs studied included Cooperative education, Job Corps, work study (NYC and WECEP), and career exploration programs. Although the document is relatively old, it provides still-relevant information about the relationship between program goals and objectives and program structure and participant outcomes.

Graham, Dick. "University Year for ACTION." Change, 4, 1, 7 and 61. February 1972.

In this article the author presents a brief overview of the University Year for ACTION program including its goals, structure, and the extent to which it has been implemented across the country.

Gutcher, Dale and William Mast. "College Credit for Non-Traditional Learning Experiences: An Historical Perspective." Journal of Industrial Teacher Education, 14, 4, 56-62. Summer 1977.

Traces the history of college credit for work and other experience from its origins in vocational teacher education to today. Summarizes surveys of institutions regarding awarding of such credit. These summaries lead to current trend toward credit by evaluation as developed by CAEL and the National Occupational Competency Testing Institute (NOCTI). Author contends development of "nationally acceptable system of evaluating work experience to award college credit" is dependent on development of "valid and reliable instrumentation, adequate norms, interpretive materials, and standards" which will lead to the transferrability of such credits.

Heyborne, Robert L. "A Crisis in Cooperative Education." Engineering Education, 68, 4, 334-337. January 1978.

Explains Cooperative Education Association/American Society for Electrical Engineers, Cooperative Education Division split in 1976. Focuses on definition of cooperative education.

Hunt, Donald C. and Robert Auld, eds. 50 Views of Cooperative Education. 2nd ed. Detroit, Michigan. Midwest Center for Cooperative Education, University of Detroit. July 1974.

A compilation of summaries of the presentations by faculty at a series of one-week "Institutes on Administrative Training in Cooperative Education" during 1972-1974 sponsored by the Midwest Center for Cooperative Education at the University of Detroit. The summaries were prepared by the presenters, who were drawn from cooperative education colleges and major business, industrial and governmental organizations that were participating in cooperative education at the time. The presentations are grouped into such areas as philosophy, academic credit, and federal funding.

Jastram, Virginia Clapp et al. Work Experience Education: A Handbook for California Secondary Schools. Sacramento, California. California State Department of Education. 1972. ERIC No. ED079512.

Describes in detail guidelines for the development and operation of work experience education programs in California. The handbook includes information regarding types of programs, development of a district plan for work experience education, methods of operation, recommendations for success, and pertinent laws and regulations.

Johnson, Johnny M. "Cooperative Education--Learning by Design or by Accident?" The Agricultural Education Magazine, 50, 12, 267 and 272. June 1978.

Stresses importance of good planning for successful OJT programs. Strongly recommends individual training plans jointly developed by employer and teacher.

Jones, Joan, Rebecca Watts and Sybil Downing. Work Experience and Academic Credit: Issues and Concerns. Information Series No. 166. Columbus, Ohio. The National Center for Research in Vocational Education, Ohio State University. January 1979.

This publication was prepared to help CETA prime sponsors and local education officials understand the issues relative to the awarding of academic credit for work experience. It raises and addresses such commonly asked questions as "What are the legal and regulatory aspects of granting academic credit for work experience?" and "What are the trade-offs and incentives for awarding academic credit for work experience?" The issues and concerns discussed were developed in part as a result of two conferences at which representatives of state departments of education, CETA prime sponsors, local school districts, private businesses, community-based organizations, and junior colleges debated and discussed CETA/LEA cooperation and the awarding of academic credit for work experience. Included in the document is a very useful chart that outlines by state the impact of state legislation or constitutional statute, State Board policy, SDE regulations, LEA policy, postsecondary rules, accreditation rules and future policy rules.

Keeton, Morris T. "Integrating Education and Practical Experience in American Higher Education." Liberal Education, 63, 259-270. May 1977.

In this article, Keeton addresses questions of national purpose and policies with regard to experiential education at the postsecondary level. The article, which is one of a set in this edition of the magazine that are devoted to comparing and contrasting education and work programs in the United States and China, delineates the characteristics of the United States that shape how national policies are set and implemented. Keeton outlines the factors he believes must be taken into consideration in establishing a national policy on experiential education, and suggests some ways to go about it.

Keeton, Morris T. and associates. Experiential Learning: Rationale, Characteristics, and Assessment. San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1977.

A collection of papers commissioned in the early stages of the development of the Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning (CAEL). The papers focus on one of the three areas listed in the book's title: (1) the rationale behind experiential learning; (2) its characteristics; or (3) methods of assessing experiential learning.

Knapp, Joan. CAEL Working Paper No. 6. A Guide for Assessing Prior Experience Through Portfolios. Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service, 1975.

This CAEL document presents complete and detailed information on methods used to collect credit for it. The publication contains sample forms and student-developed materials as well.

Lauda, Donald Paul. Factors Related to the Granting of College-University Credit for Trade and Industrial Experience in Institutions Offering Industrial Education. Ames, Iowa. Iowa State University of Science and Technology. 1966. ERIC No. ED016052.

In this publication the author has compiled the findings of several surveys of institutions in the U.S. and Puerto Rico that offer industrial education curricula to determine their policies regarding the awarding of college credit for trade and work experience. The studies reported were all conducted in the mid- and late-sixties.

Leonardi, Rudi A., William W. Keller, Lynn G. Smith and Vicky Carlyle. A High Support Youth Work and Education Model Demonstration. National Office for Social Responsibility: San Francisco, CA, June 1977.

This document presents a program development model developed by NOSR and used in California by the California CETA Balance of State Prime Sponsor. It explains that underlying concepts and principles of the Model, describes the model, and presents an example of an implementation of the model at one site (Sutter County, CA).

Lesh, Seymour, Jeffrey Newman, Lillian Jordan and Charlotte Cash. Youth Serving the Community: Realistic Public Service Roles for Young Workers. R&D Monograph 68. Washington, D.C. Employment and Training Administration, U.S. DOL. 1979.

Provides general guidelines for work experience projects--whereby groups of youth under careful supervision carry out a specific task within a limited time frame--and describes several actual projects within 10 different categories. The categories including housing, health, environment and conservation, social services, public safety, public works, culture and beautification education, economic and community development, and clerical and administrative activities. Within each category additional guidelines are provided that concern the peculiarities of the structure and purpose of projects within it. The awarding of credit is encouraged.

Los Angeles Community College District. Los Angeles Community College District District Plan for Cooperative Education. Los Angeles, California. June 1976. ERIC No. ED124425.

Outline requirements, purpose, mutual responsibilities and awarding of credit for college work experience programs in the Los Angeles Community College District. Credit to be awarded is specified in terms of maximum amounts, but the type of credit is not specified. Sample forms are attached.

Magnum, Garth L. Career Education and the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act. Washington, D. C. Office of Career Education. U.S. Government Printing Office. Stock No. 017-080-01862-4. February 1978.

Summarizes much of what was said in Employment and Training Programs for Youth: What Works Best for Whom? by Magnum and John Walsh, and extends the discussion to include an examination of the most appropriate role for career education and the U.S. Office of Career Education in the

CETA youth effort. Includes brief overview descriptions of eleven CETA programs, a discussion of the relative effectiveness of program stategies, and proposes greater articulation of career education with CETA program to aid in the development of youth employability skills and help increase CETA-eligible youth's motivation to complete their education. Suggests that the state career education coordinator should be a key link between CETA and career education.

Magnum, Garth and John Walsh. Employment and Training Programs for Youths: What Works Best For Whom? A report to the Office of Youth Programs, Employment and Training Administration, U.S. DOL, from the National Council on Employment Policy. Washington, D.C. Office of Youth Programs, Employment and Training Administration, U.S. DOL. May 1978.

A careful examination of the complete range of employment and training programs for youth since the establishment of the Manpower Development and Training Act. This review of the literature analyzes the evaluation reports and other written information that shed light on the effectiveness of programs and program components with various target groups ranging from the earliest identified group, unemployed youths, to more recent categories such as the disadvantaged, minority disadvantaged, hard-core disadvantaged youths. Major conclusions are that evaluations of programs have for the most part not linked outcomes to target populations nor outcomes to program components. Recommends coupling of work experience programs with career exploration, performance standards and participant accountability, and the teaching of acceptable work behavior patterns. The authors stress the importance of recognizing the limitations of typical employment and training programs to deal with the sociological problems of many of their intended participants.

McBride, Paul W. "The Co-Op Industrial Education Experiment, 1900-1917." History of Education Quarterly, 14, 52, 209-221. Summer 1974.

Relates the history of co-op industrial education in the period from 1900-1917. With cooperation of the schools, industries formed so-called industrial schools--four-year "training" programs consisting mostly of work with some schooling during which time the students, young men and boys of high school age, were paid for below current wages for their work. Some "schools" were also reimbursed for their "expenses" out of state and local taxes. These schools were highly exploitive of students.

Mills, Ted. Work as a Learning Experience. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, The Center for Vocational Education, June 1977.

A paper presented at the Third National Forum on Education and Work in San Francisco, California and published in Current Issues in Higher Education, 1977 by the American Association for Higher Education and Jossey-Bass, Inc. Mills presents the view that American society has experienced a shift in the purpose of education from development of the self to development of an individual capable of functioning successfully in an economic system. This, in turn, has resulted in greater demands and pressures on employers to provide activities and circumstances that foster the development of the self in the work setting.

Minnesota Department of Education. Partners: CETA, Education, Youth. St. Paul, Minnesota. Youth Employment Education Unit, Division of Special Services, Minnesota Department of Education. February 1979. Documents Code No. IX-A-12.

A review of the history, analysis of the issues, and a description of actions to date regarding CETA youth programs and education in Minnesota. The discussion of the issue of credit includes a listing of pertinent educational regulations and legislation and an analysis of how they impact on the goals and purposes within CETA concerning the awarding of credit for work experience and other activities.

Mirengoff, William and Lester Rindler. CETA: Manpower Programs Under Local Control. Washington, D.C. Assembly of Behavioral and Social Sciences, National Academy of Sciences/National Research Council. 1978. ERIC No. ED163223.

This report, which is the final in a series of three that were conducted since the first year of CETA's operation, examines the differences between CETA Title I programs and their predecessors and compares legislative goals with CETA's results to date. It focuses on transitional activities related to the change from centralized to local control.

NASBE. Ceta-Education Collaboration Issues in Three States. Volume I. Washington, D. C.: NASBE. August 1979.

Reports activities and outcomes of a process used by NASBE with three states to assist them in identifying and solving some of their CETA-LEA problems. With each state the project staff helped establish a task force that identified the problems, came up with some alternative solutions and set goals for achieving them, established time lines, identified needed information, solicited constituency input, reported progress on the data collection and constituency input, resulted in the drafting of policy statements that are reviewed by the Board and revised, and adopted the policy and monitored, evaluated and revised it.

NASBE. Educational Governance and Youth Employment Issues. Volume II. By Russell W. Meyers, Wesley Apker and Anne Radford. Washington, D.C.: NASBE. August 1979.

Volume II presents an overview of the educational governing structures and regulations within the 50 states. It summarizes the relationships of state and local agencies and how they are structured. The report also presents in summary form information about how curriculum guidance and counseling, high school graduation requirements, teacher certification, and teacher and administrator certification requirements are shaped by these governing bodies and what the statutes and regulations stipulate.

National Center for Service-Learning. "Service-Learning in Secondary Schools." Synergist, 8, 3, 2-5. Winter 1980.

Reports the findings of a national survey conducted by the National Center for Service-Learning in 1978. Findings show that the majority of schools with such programs began awarding credit in only the past five years (since 1970).

National Academy of Sciences. Employment and Training Programs: The Local View. Washington, D.C. Committee on Evaluation of Employment and Training Programs, National Research Council, National Academy of Sciences. 1978.

This publication presents the findings of nine case studies that "exemplify some of the problems noted in the ... national reports: piecemeal planning, difficulty in arranging on-the-job training, too much emphasis on work experience programs, poor coordination between sponsors and employment service agencies, inadequate arrangements for placing participants into jobs, and a tendency on the part of some local governments to rely on CETA for maintaining public service." p. viii from the preface by Philip Rutledge, Chairman of the Committee. The focus in the document is on the transition from MDTA to CETA at the nine case study sites. The report is concerned with the problems of the transition, the extent to which new innovation programs were initiated, and with reviewing program planning, administration and the clients served.

National Association of Secondary School Principals. Twenty-Five Action-Learning Schools. Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1974.

This booklet describes the goals and purpose of action-learning programs and how they address the issues and concerns outlined in three influential panel reports: (1) Youth: Transition to Adulthood, report on the Panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee, chaired by James S. Coleman; (2) The Reform of Secondary Education, the recommendations by the National Commission on the Reform of Secondary Education, chaired by B. Frank Brown; and (3) National Panel on High Schools and Adolescent Education, appointed by the Office of Education and chaired by John Henry Martin. The document describes the background and development of the action-learning movement, the kinds of programs it encompasses, and includes one-page descriptions of 25 schools that offer a wide variety of action-learning programs to their students--some programs offering students credit, others pay for their productive participation.

National Council on Employment Policy. The Unfolding Youth Initiatives: Prime Sponsor Experience in Implementing the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act (YEDPA). (Report No. 2 in a series) Prepared for Office of Program Evaluation, Employment and Training Administration, U.S. DOL. August 1978. Contract No. 23-11-77-06, Report MEL 87-13.

This is the second in a series of reports representing findings about the implementation of YEDPA. The document has two major parts: an overview of the findings and 10 case studies that provided the information from which conclusions are drawn. It is a very straightforward and useful study, one that pulls no punches in presenting the obstacles YEDPA encountered and the problems, successes, and inadequacies of the programs studied.

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Owens, Thomas R. and Joseph F. Haenn. *FY76 Final Evaluation Report of the NWREL Experience-Based Career Education Program*. Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratories, 1976.

This is a summative report that presents the findings for the demonstration and pilot sites implemented under the NWREL model. Findings are for both first- and second-year students. This report also summarizes data and presents results of the evaluation of three sets of program materials.

Pace, Wayne R. *Making Contacts and Negotiating Agreements for Organizational Communication Internships*. Paper presents at the International Communication Association Conference in Philadelphia, May 1-5, 1979. Utah. May 1979. ERIC No. ED169585.

Presents guidelines for developing organizational communication internships, based on author's experiences at Brigham Young University in Salt Lake City, Utah, which requires a field experience as part of its course requirements for graduation.

Pines, Marion W. and James H. Morlock. *Work Experience Perspectives: CETA Program Models*. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, 1978.

An informative handbook on work experience programs for CETA-eligible participants. Discusses site recruitment, contract monitoring by the prime sponsor (to insure accountability), model programs, and accounting procedures. The specific programs described are characterized as falling into three basic models: (1) work experience coupled with secondary education and targeted for youth; (2) work experience coupled with coping skills targeted for "undereducated underachievers"; and (3) work experience coupled with skills training and payment of wages. Unfortunately, the document does not discuss the award of academic credit for work experience.

Purtzer, Wayne R. *Policies Affecting Acceptance of Transfer Credit for Courses in Technical Education*. University of Nebraska. 1967. ERIC No. 019046.

In this report the results of a survey of 80 schools listed in the Industrial Teacher Education Directory are presented. The purpose of the survey was to determine the policies and practices of the institutions regarding: (1) the transferability of credit (technical course credit, work experience credit, the credit from one type of institution to another), (2) the awarding of credit for work experience and for skills acquired outside the ken of the institution (e.g., military training), and (3) the requirements for graduation, and the relationship between institutional policies and the size and structure of the institution and its methods and tools for evaluating performance for credit. No clearcut conclusions were made on the basis of this study. There were too many variables and too much diversity across respondents.

Richard A. Gibboney Associates, Inc. *The Career Intern Program: Final Report. Volume I: An Experiment in Career Education that Worked*. NIE Papers in Education and Work: Number Seven. U.S. HEW, NIE, Education and Work Group. Washington, D.C., May 1977. (Gibboney is located in Blue Bell, PA) *Volume II: Technical Appendices*.

This two-volume document presents the final summative report on the Career Intern Program developed by the Reverend Dr. Leon Sullivan, founder and chairman of the board of the Opportunities Industrialization Centers of American (OICs/A). The program began to focus on youth in Philadelphia in 1972. Until that time the OICs/A had concentrated on providing job preparation and skill training to out-of-school youth and adults (18 and over). This report addresses the last 18 months of development of the CIP.

Rosen, David Paul, Layton Olson and Karon Cox. *Masters of Reality: Certificate or Performance? Toward Policy and Practice for Post-Secondary Education and Work Programs Based on Outcomes for Students*. Washington, D.C.: The National Advisory Council for Career Education, 1977.

This report presents information gathered by the authors in a series of visits to education and work programs at a variety of postsecondary institutions across the United States. Each program has been described in a profile and the information compiled across programs is presented along with suggestions and recommendations for future development and research in postsecondary education and work programs.

Searcy, Ellen. *Work Experience as Preparation for Adulthood: A Review of Job Training, Vocational, and Career Education Programs, An Analysis of Current Research, and Recommendations for Future Research*. Prepared for the Interagency Panel for Research and Development on Adolescence. Social Research Group, The George Washington University, Washington, D.C., May 1973.

This report examines work experience programs and research efforts funded by the departments of HEW, Labor, and Defense and by ACTION. It summarizes the work experience programs funded through those agencies and reviews and summarizes related research. Finally, the author makes recommendations for future research. Many of the recommendations made, as for example, (1) state learner and program objectives in measurable terms, (2) develop tests to measure "personal qualities" that are "broadly defined" and difficult to quantify, and (3) put Federal dollars into pilot programs and demonstration projects with built-in experimental designs, have been carried out in the years since the report was published.

Sexton, Robert F. *Experiential Education and Community Involvement Practices at the Postsecondary Level: Implications for Career Education*. A paper prepared by the Office of Career Education, Office of Education, U.S. DHEW. November 1976. ERIC No. ED138771.

The author presents a typology of experiential education programs and describes one operating program in each category to exemplify its purpose and structure. He also discusses the issues and problems surrounding experiential education, such as the conflict between the concerns of the participating educational institution and those of the funding source and participating employers. The author concludes with a series of recommendations for action at the federal level.

Sexton, Robert F. and Richard A. Ungerer. Rationales for Experiential Education. ERIC/Higher Education Research Project No. 3. Prepared by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education of the George Washington University. Published by the American Association for Higher Education, Washington, D.C., 1975.

The document surveys experiential education and reviews it as a concept. The authors distinguish between experiential education and experiential learning. The literature reviewed by the authors ranged from that which addressed the issues of experiential education from a developmental psychology perspective, to those examining the labor market situation, the status of career education, and the character of the then current student population.

Sharon, Amiel T. CAEL Working Paper No. 8: A Task-Based Model For Assessing Work Experience. Princeton, New Jersey: CAEL, Educational Testing Service, April 1975.

As stated in the introductory chapter, the purpose of this document is "to present a generalizable model, called the Work Assessment Model, for assessing specific competencies in occupational fields." It includes a definition of work experience, descriptions of work experience programs, assessment methods that can be used at the postsecondary level, procedures for identifying and defining occupational competencies and relating them to educational program objectives, and a full statement and description of the model. The model is applied to three occupational fields (data processing, law enforcement and secretarial science) to demonstrate how it can be used. Guidelines are presented for evaluating the model and cost estimates for using it are provided.

Shea, Mary Lou. Cooperative Education Arrangements. Springfield, Illinois. Springfield Division of Adult Vocational and Technical Education, Illinois State Office of Education. 1978. ERIC No. ED158042.

Defines cooperative education so as to include a wide range of program types from work-study to internships, Experience-Based Career Education and entrepreneurship. Each program type is described, including whether or not credit is awarded and the major purposes of the program.

Shively, Joe and Rebecca Watts. Final Evaluation Report on 1976-77 Implementation Sites. Charleston, WV: Appalachia Educational Laboratory, 1977.

This report has two major sections. One reports and summarizes the quantitative data collected. The other presents a series of student (EBCE and non-EBCE) case studies.

Spotts, Robert and Jill Evenson. Experience-Based Career Education: Evaluation of Outcomes at Three Pilot Programs, 1976-77. San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1977.

This evaluation was undertaken to collect evidence from stable operating pilot programs about the effectiveness of FWL-EBCE model in achieving student outcomes related to career development and personal and interpersonal development. This study, in part, sought to determine the reliability of the Far West model and the extent to which other sites could achieve the same or similar outcomes as those achieved by the demonstration site.

Sprengel, Donald P. and Allen E. Tomey. Vocational Exploration in the Private Sector: Final Report and Assessment, 1972-73; Comparison of Impact of the Pilot and Experimental Years. St. Louis, MO: St. Louis University, 1974.

This final report presents an assessment of program operations, administration and the impact of the program on participants. It provides a description of the program, its program objectives and summaries of the cities in which it was implemented. Impact data reported include dropout rates, academic performance, school attendance, disciplinary status, and follow-up data upon program completion or termination.

Stull, William A. "Statement of Student Trainee Learning Objectives: Alternative to Traditional Training Plan." Business Education Forum, 32, 2, 3-5. November 1977.

Proposes use of statement student of learning objectives (SSLO) in lieu of training plan. These are to be five to ten behaviorally-stated objectives developed by the student and the employer with review and input by teachers. The student's grade is based on the evaluation of his or her achievement of these objectives.

Systems Research Incorporated. In-School Youth Manpower: A Guide to Local Strategies and Methods. Final Report on the Survey and Analysis of Innovative In-School Neighborhood Youth Corps Program Models. Prepared for the U.S. DOL, June 1973. Contract No. 42-26-72-09.

This document is the result of a year-long study of NYC programs. It is intended as a handbook for prospective implementers of NYC In-School programs. It describes the basic components of such programs (e.g., enrollee entree and orientation, employer entry and orientation, matching and alignment), and areas of emphasis such as self-image, development, vocational skills, and income maintenance.

Ungerer, Richard A. The Work and Education Initiative and Experiential Education Programs in the United States. Washington, D.C.: National Manpower Institute, n.d.

This publication presents an overview of the Work and Education Initiative launched under the Ford Administration. Half of the article is devoted to describing the Work Education Consortium Project operated by the National Manpower Institute. The last section discusses work experience and experiential education in broad terms.

U.S. DHEW, Office of Education. The Education of Adolescents: The Final Report and Recommendations of the National Panel on High School and Adolescent Education, 1976.

Presents the Panel's recommendations with regard to adolescent education. Makes recommendations with regard to work experience, use of the community in the educational process and as a learning site, and the certification and credentialing of learning. Recommendations include offering opportunities to more students to gain work experience during their formal education, reducing the legal school day in order to allow students to participate in a variety of learning programs not located on the high-school grounds, and making available alternative methods of certifying learning and obtaining credentials. The document focuses on institutional and policy change at the state and local level.

U.S. Department of Labor. Consideration and Elements for CETA/LEA Agreement. Office of Youth Programs, Employment and Training Administration, U.S. DOL. December 1977.

Raises the issues to be addressed and the component parts to be included in agreements developed by CETA and LEA representatives in order to establish and operate YEDPA programs for youth. Stipulates the principles programs are expected to follow including targeting of services to youth in greatest need, provision of comprehensive services, emphasis on development of opportunities for youth to complete their education, and the relationship between education and work.

U.S. Department of Labor. Final Report on Prime Sponsor Utilization of Colleges and Universities in the Implementation of CETA Youth Programs. Washington, D. C. Office of Youth Programs, Employment and Training Administration, U.S. DOL. n.d.

A survey of colleges and universities that focuses particularly on minority colleges and universities, which analyses existing linkages between them and CETA youth programs. The report presents evidence the four-year institutions have the greatest difficulties in relating to CETA clients clients. Two year institutions appear to have the orientation and curricula most appropriate to CETA clients but lack administrative and fiscal resources necessary to develop and operate programs.

U.S. DOL, Employment and Training Administration, Office of Youth Programs. Impacts of YEDPA on Education/CETA Relationships at the Local Level: Five Case Studies. Prepared jointly by representatives of DHEW and DOL's Office of Youth Programs. August 1978. Office of Youth Programs Special Report Number 1.

A report based on site visits conducted in April 1977 at five locations: Houston, Texas; Worcester, Massachusetts; Minnesota BOS; Fairfax County, Virginia; and Los Angeles, California. At the time the limited study was conducted, programs had been in operation only about 4 months and only 8 months had passed since the signing of YEDPA. The major question the study sought to address was why some communities were successful and others were not in promoting institutional change establishing effective linkages between employment and training institutions and school systems.

U.S. DOL. Work-Education Councils and the Possibilities for Collaborative Efforts under YEDPA. Employment and Training Administration, Office of Youth Programs, May 1978.

This document describes the structure and activities of the Work-Education Consortium project operated by the National Manpower Institute. These activities are discussed in relation to YEDPA and CETA and the roles work-education councils can play in implementing youth programs.

U.S. Department of Labor. Youth Program Models and Innovations. Washington, D.C. Office of Youth Programs, U.S. DOL. Monthly.

A monthly compilation of youth program models and innovations. The listings are identified by the Office of Youth Programs, U.S. Department of Labor with help from the American Vocational Association, Council of Great City Schools, McClure-Lundberg Associates, National Association of Counties, National Collaboration for Youth, National Commission on Resources for Youth, National Council of LaRaza, National Governor's Association, and U.S. Conference of Mayors. The first monthly publication of program models and innovations is dated September 1978, the most recent is October 1979.

Walther, Regis H. and Margaret L. Magnusson. A Longitudinal Study of Selected Out of School NYC-2 Programs in Four Cities. Final Report. Prepared for Manpower Administration, U.S. DOL, Manpower Research Projects, George Washington University, June 1975.

This document reports the results of an extensive study of the effectiveness of out-of-school Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) programs in enhancing the employability of their enrollees. The programs in four cities were studied: Atlanta, Georgia; Baltimore, Maryland; Cincinnati, Ohio; and St. Louis, Missouri. An additional purpose of the study was to compare the new design of the Corps, NYC-2, to the original, NYC-1.

White, Thomas R. and Robert K. Eley. Occupational Training Plans for Disadvantaged and Handicapped Students in Vocational Education: A Manual for Use in Cooperative Work Experience Programs. Bloomington, Indiana. Vocational Education Program, School of Education, Indiana University. July 1976. ERIC No. ED132286.

A manual on training plans for disadvantaged and handicapped students for use in cooperative work experience programs. It provides information regarding the special needs of such youth and how programs for them should differ from those for other students. The publication states the purposes of training plans and provides samples that demonstrate the range of handicaps as well as occupations. The authors also list the steps to follow in developing a plan. The samples identify the type of individual for which they are intended, e.g., trainable mentally retarded and the occupation for which the student is to be trained.

Willingham, Warren W. *Principles of Good Practice in Assessing Experiential Learning*. Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service, 1977.

This document summarizes those assessment procedures CAEL has found to be most effective, accurate, and useful in evaluating experiential learning for credit. These principles are presented in the context of CAEL's six "basic steps" and offer the reader considerable detail and rationale. The appendix includes an annotated list of CAEL's reports.

Willingham, Warren W., John R. Valley and Morris T. Keeton. *Assessing Experiential Learning--A Summary Report of the CAEL Project*. Princeton, New Jersey: CAEL, Educational Testing Service, 1977.

Reports the validation process and outcome that was used to test the validity of CAEL's assessment materials, approaches and procedures.

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REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE:

YOUTH OPERATED PROJECTS

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I. INTRODUCTION

This paper provides a literature review of "youth operated projects," and contains some specific recommendations for additional knowledge development efforts. In this paper the term "youth operated project" (YOP) is defined as a project in which youth assume major responsibility for both staffing and managing a project which leads to the production of goods or services.

This broad definition encompasses a variety of program models. Youth operated projects may, for example, be school-based or community-based, they may have profit or nonprofit status, they may or may not produce income, they may lead to the production of goods or of services, a project's youth participants may or may not receive financial renumeration. The range of possible goods and services that youth might provide further extends the number of different forms that projects might assume. The essential feature is that youth participate actively in program decision making which leads to the production of goods or services.

A conceptual difficulty encountered throughout our work for this review is that there is no commonly accepted definition of what constitutes a YOP. One reason for this may be, as suggested by Pressman, that the current interest in job creation through youth operated projects represents a newly evolved amalgram of two more familiar program forms: "(1) youth employment projects with a growing emphasis on youth involvement and (2) youth participation projects, which most often do not involve the creation of paid jobs, are not targeted primarily towards low income youth, and have a separate history of their own." (p. 2)

According to Pressman, application guidelines for what he calls youth operated projects "suggest that participants in these programs should play major roles in program planning, program management and operation (including presumably program direction), task analysis, job creation, and program assessment and evaluation." (p. 2) For the purpose of selecting materials for inclusion in our literature review, we have chosen not to incorporate these additional criteria which would unduly limit the sample in this early stage of analysis. Hence our own definition requires only that service or production projects have "some" youth participation in management. Similarly, we have not included in our definition such desirable, though perhaps inessential, program features as "periodic in-process evaluation by students..." (Pressman p. 1) or "opportunity to work with adults who can serve as models or mentors." (Graham, p. 2) Again, this would have been too limiting at this stage of analysis.

The less limiting definition of YOP used in this paper is in keeping with the philosophy reflected in DOL Guidelines for Exemplary Programs, as reported by Rist (1978, p. 38):

> Job creation through youth operated projects has been selected as a primary area of focus because it raises crucial issues in national policy toward youth. Usually, young people are the "objects" of programs serving principally as spectators and consumers of goods and services. This passive role excludes young people from important experiences and skills. To be competent is to be the subject of an activity not the object. The measure of competence is what a person can do. Youth operated projects are a way to experiment with approaches that develop competence by actively involving the enrollee in the task of creating socially meaningful and economically gainful employment.

At present there are two nationally supported initiatives of particular relevance to the study of YOPs. One is the establishement of twelve project sites designed to test "job creation through youth operated projects," monitored through Youthwork, Inc. The other is the funding by the Department of Labor of youth entrepreneurships or youth business ventures through organizations such as Community Youth Enterprises and the Corporation for Public/Private Ventures. Many of these entrepreneurships may also fit our definition of youth operated projects. It should be cautioned, however, that a youth enterpreneurship may not necessarily qualify as a YOP; the criterion of youth particiapation in management decisions must be met if an entrepreneurship, or any other project, is to be classified as a YOP. Further, just as not all youth enterpreneurships are YOPs, not all are enterpreneurships. The YOP umbrella covers a greatly varied range of program possibilities.

Youth operated projects, though not so labeled, have existed in our society for many years. An early example was the Junior Achievement Program, initiated in 1919 and today active in 1500 communities. Another example is the nationally distributed Foxfire magazine, put out since 1966 by high school students from Rabun Gap, Georgia. Other examples are to be found in the program files of a number of organizations which gather information on youth projects.

The problem is that most of this information--brochures, project review, sites reports, evaluations and the like--remains tucked away in files. Little of it is available in the literature and almost none has received systematic treatment of any kind. While indentification and analysis of this material might provide useful information, such a research effort is beyond the scope of the present literature review. For purposes of this paper, we review only that material appearing in published documents or readily available through information services. Sources consulted during our search are listed in appendix A, and include a search of the ERIC system and a review of the NTIS bibliography provided for a study of youth employment by Mangum and Walsh (1978).

In all, only 18 sources, seven of which were about the same project yielded information on projects which fit the definition of youth operated projects. This literature is reviewed in Section II.

Though in some cases the literature contains rich descriptive material, most of the project descriptions provide incomplete information on program operation and outcomes. Further, because most of the reported information is anecdotal and limited by program-specific concerns, any attempt at post hoc comparative analysis is not possible.

This absence of information in the literature underscores the need for knowledge development related to YOPs. Some recommendations are included in Section III.

II. REVEIW OF THE LITERATURE ON YOUTH OPERATED PROJECTS

The literature which served as the source for this description of YOPs is, as already mentioned, exceedingly thin. YOPs per se have emerged only recently as a subject of interest to policy makers and researchers. Apart from the studies sponsored by Youthwork (Rist), the literature search turned up virtually nothing that dealt directly with youth-operated projects as an issue. Instead, sources of information were limited to works that focused on single project (Blake, Wigginton, Wood, Mottel, Cribb), or described a series of projects (NCRY, n.d., 1974; McCloskey & Kleinbard; OFY; Fenton). For the latter, projects were collected under common criteria, but the criteria were not the same as those for YOPs. Descriptions of single projects, meanwhile, reflected each project's, or the author's, interests, which again were not YOPs as such.

In most cases, the program information was descriptive rather than analytic, and anecdotal and impressionistic rather than systematic or methodologically rigorous. There is no record of systematic efforts either to measure changes as a result of program efforts, or to relate program outcomes to the effects of specific program components. Furthermore, since most of the information is program specific and non-comparative, it is impossible to construct any post hoc analysis of which kinds of models or components are "best" or most effective in producing desired outcomes.

In sum, despite the presence of some vivid and intelligent descriptions of a rich variety of program activities, for the purposes of this paper the literature may be characterized as scarce, uneven and off the YOP target. Our approach for this section, therefore, is to introduce those works that do bear significantly on YOPs, describe what they report on the issues under examination, and note the remaining gaps in what is known.

Given the extreme diveristy in the sources that form the basis of this review, we have considered it best to orient the reader to it thoroughly in advance of the discussion of characteristics and outcomes of youth operated projects. This is done through a brief, narrative overview of each of the works to indicate their form, substance, style and range, followed by an examination of the operating definitions for the approach to youth programing employed by each of the works that treats mutiple projects.

A. Annotated Bibilography

A review of the works that proved most relevant to the present interest in youth operated projects will indicate their diversity of focus, mehtodology and style. A biblographic listing of these works appears at the end of this section (p. 52).

(1) The report by Fenton (1970) describes a series of fourteen "youth involvement" projects that were sponsored by the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO) in the late 1960s. As an outgrowth of the War on Poverty, these projects were a contemporary attempt to deal positively with the alienation and disenfranchisement that were perceived to be a major cause of often destructive unrest by urban minority youth. The projects sought to redress the "social inequity" that is "a major determinant of youth deviance" by giving youth formal policy and decision making roles in OEO-funded community action agencies. An important item in OEO's policy agenda was to test the concept of youth involvement. Forms of involvement included youth representation on the board of the adult sponsoring organization, a youth board serving in an advisory capacity to the adult organization, a youth board totally responsible for the youth program of the adult organization, and youth staffing and managing of the youth program. In this Final Report to OEO on these projects, Fenton states that of the twelve projects described, seven had "formal

> All projects in the first category included skill training as a substantial component, and given the fact that they were all time-limited demonstration grants, the business ventures themselves were more training operations than substantive, permanent commercial enterprises.

(2) Forging New Relationships: The CETA/School Nexus (Rist, 1978) is the first of a series of interim reports to be presented by the Youthwork National Policy study. This report focuses on the early record of instances of cooperation and collaboration between LEAs and CETA prime sponsors in the implementation of the Exemplary In-School Demonstration projects administered by Youthwork, Inc. Chapter Three examines that LEA-CETA collaboration in the context of youth operated projects. Eight of the twelve YOP sites provided data for the report. The sites had been in operation from

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two to eight months at the time of the study. In general, collaboration between LEAs and CETA prime spnosors was found to be "minimal," revolving around fiscal and space concerns. Discussion of programatic mateters was limited by mutual hostility and distrust. Rist tries to establish differences among projects in small cities, large metropolitan areas, and rural areas, and among CETA-sponsored and LEA-sponsored YOPs. He also breaks down YOPs according to project "activity type" - peer counseling (2 projects), work experience (4 project), brokerage model (1 project) and profit making (1 project) - and compares these types of sponsorships. Rist concludes that CETA-sponsored YOPs were implemented more quickly and faithfully to their proposals, and served a higher proportion of their target population, than were CETA-sponsored YOPs; and that sites in smaller cities were more quickly implemented than were those in large metropolitan areas. These findings were limited, however, by the small size of the sample, and by the fact that only two of the youth operated projects accurately fit the "youth operated" title. (p. 59) In addition, the Rist findings do not show how the reported outcomes relate to the sites' status as YOPs; the findings with regard to patterns of LEA-CETA collaboration, size of city and identity of sponsor (CETA or LEA) seem substantially the same for YOPs as they are for the three other Youthwork program types.

(3) In Strategies for Coordinating Education and Employment Services: A Preliminary Analysis of Four In-School Alternatives, Rist (1979) offers some new ways to compare YOPs, using data collected at seven to ten sites that had been in operation from eight to twelve months (through August, 1979). Three issues were examined, and comparisons were made between LEA-sponsored, CETA-sponsored, and NPO*-sponsored YOPs for each issue. The first issue was speed of reaching proposed plan; the three CETA-sponsored programs were more successful than three of the four LEA-sponsored sites. The second issue is adult versus youth management of programs; seven of ten programs were classified as adult-managed. The third issue is program strategies; ten sites are categorized as either peer counseling (2 sites), work experience (6 sites) or brokerage (2 sites).** In this "Occasional Paper #1," Rist is essentially

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*non-profit organization

**As in the previous Rist work, these terms are not defined.

proposing different ways to sort data on YOPs, without attempting to draw conclusions. At this still-early stage of the Youthwork demonstration and knowledge development effort, Rist cautions that "this paper should be viewed as an attempt to provide a conceptual framework for examining the youth-initiated projects." (An unexplained development in this paper is the author's replacement of the usual term "youth-operated projects" by the term "youth-initiated projects." The change is uniform throughout Chapter Three; the more familiar term does not appear except in the chapter title, "Job Creation through Youth Operated Projects,: and in a quotation from an early DOL document.)

(4) Opportunities for Youth (OFY) was a summer program announced by the government of Canada which in 1971, with a budget of $24.7 million, funded a wide variety of activities that were proposed and operated by youth. 2,312 projects were approved, resulting in 27,832 jobs for youth, and encompassing "all kinds of community-oriented projects, such as urban redevelopment, pollution studies, social services for the elderly, day-care centers, and cultural activities." OFY was created in response to widespread concern over growing numbers of disaffected young people (including many thought of as "dirty hippies") who would be "released from their studies during the summer" and, unoccupied in jobs or other "meaningful activities," set adrift in Canadian society. OFY was targeted at students, especially post-secondary students, who were seen as embodying the most potentially volatile combination of unemployment, inactivity, nonparticipation and social unrest. The evaluation of OFY contained in the Report of the Evaluation Task Force to the Secretary of State (OFY, 1971) combines a description of the central planning and implementation for the program with a largely statistical report of outcomes. The limitations on the evaluation were primarily methodological:

> (OFY's) objectives were ambitious, overlapping and sometimes vague. The concrete details of the programme - that is, the projects themselves - were wholly determined by the participants rather than by the criteria of the granting agency. There was no single, definable set of objectives which the programme sought to achieve by its choice of projects, and therefore no explicit set of criteria for the evaluation of the programme at that level. How to compare, for example, the relative costs and benefits of a travelling theatre troupe in northern Quebec with those of a "speed" clinic in Thunder Bay or a food co-op in Saskatoon? (pp. iii-iv)

Hence, no attempt is made to describe any individual projects, although there is a statistical breakdown by type (Research, Recreational, Social Service and Cultural) and by 25 sub-types. Criteria for approval of projects included a minimum number of jobs provided, that no profit-making activities be funded, and that projects must benefit persons other than those immediately employed. The evaluators used mostly survey methods to record project dimensions and to measure various project effects on youth, community and nation. Two key findings were that (a) although students did work, OFY did nothing to alter the conditions of student unempoloyment, and was probably misconceived as an employment program, and (b) "there was a direct correlation between the size of a project and the degree to which its members were involved in planning and decision making. For all types and in all regions, smaller projects were more truly democratic than were larger ones." (p. 73) Comparing projects that were initiated by adult agencies with those inititated by youth themselves, the study found that

> The participants' total involvement in all aspects of the design and management of projects ... is difficult to obtain in a project that was conceived, not by young people themselves, but either by a formal agency or one that is too large to allow the complete involvement of all concerned. (pp. 76-77)

(5) Youth Into Adult. A 1974 publication of the National Commission on Resources for Youth (NCRY), bases its selection and description of youth projects on the NCRY definition of youth participation. This emphasizes responsible action by youth to meet needs in the community as a way of helping to meet developmental needs of youth. The definition, as indicated below, differs from the one we utilize here for YOPs, but in some projects there is overlap.

Most of the projects reported in Youth into Adult have been site-visited by the authors, who provide details orf youth activities, project goals and transcriptions of interviews with project leaders. The treatment is not systematic however, and there is no comparison between projects; nor is there quantitiative information on such dimensions as goods and services produced.

Nine projects are described, each of which demonstrates some significant youth particiaption: youth helping other youth, youth serving needy people in the community, youth helping to maintain and manage residential youth homes. Four of the nine projects focus on youth's role in helping drug users. The nine projects are: Project Community (a center for troubled youth; Number Nine (a crisis center); Encounter (a non-residential drug program); Compass (a residential drug program); Community Meical Corps (in which high school students from the South Bronx help to check for blood poisoning, take medical histories and increase community awareness of health problems); The Yorkville Youth Council (tutoring and teaching by high school students); Chinese Youth Council (teaching of adults by high school and college students); Film Club (films produced and distributed by students); and Foxfire (a national magazine produced by students).

Of all the projects described, Foxfire is the one that most approximates our definition of YOPs. Students plan and manage the production of the magazine. They participate in all aspects of its publication, from writing to sales. the first two Foxfire books, anthologized collections of articles from the magazine, are described briefly. These are published by Doubleday, and by the time of publication of Youth into Adult, they had sold more than 600,000 copies between them.

In a final chapter, "Towards a Model for Youth into Adult Programs," the authors identify nine elements that they argue are essential to the best projects, and they offer practical guidelines for starting projects. Finally, there is a nine-page annotated bibliography.

(6) What Kids Can Do, another NCRY publication, contains a book called 40 Projects by Groups of Kids, nine newsletters published by NCRY, and some information about Youth Tutoring Youth projects. Once again, the definition and project selection are based on the NCRY model that emphasizes developmental needs of youth. These include the stipulation that the project must "give the young person a responsible role, with some voice in the operation of the project and, whenever feasible, in the planning phases as well." (P. ii) The forty projects are divided into the following categories: Community Service, Medical, Legal Service, Crisis Intervention, Ecology, Day Care and Teaching, and Community Arts. The newsletters describe projects that range from construction to ecology.

Project descriptions are brief and focus on the activities of the youth. No effort is made to compare projects in terms of the quantity of goods or services that they produce. Each of the forty projects is described as to its purpose, benefits to youth, type of career exploration, possible sponsors (institutional base), adult supervisors. Data is not quantified, but anecdotal and typically is based on interviews with project staff and/or students. In terms of YOPs, the following projects come closest to the definition used for this paper:

> Youth initiated and staff a natural science museum in Cornwall, New York (P. 2). Young people worked with adult consumers to develop an alternative to high-priced food in their community. They identified wholesale food outlets, arranged for community residents to order food, and utilized the wholesale outles to fill the orders (p. 24). Adolescents staffed a day care center that was set up in the parking lot of a supermarket. Parents could leave their young children in the center while they shopped. Teenagers collaborated with skilled adults to teach the children. Parents were urged to spend time in the center to observe how their children were taught (p. 88). Young people from New York City's Lower East Side started a magazine, The Fourth Street i, that traced the culture of Puerto Ricans after they immigrate to New York. The student editorial board of the magazine planned each issue and worked with other students to collect materials including photographs, interviews and art. The magazine was sold in the community, and the local school district purchased copies for use in classes (p. 94).

(7) New Roles for Youth in the School and the Community, like the other NCRY materials, focuses on projects that attend to a broad range of developmental needs of adolescents. The book contains case studies and descriptions of nearly 100 projects that fulfill NCRY's criteria for youth participation. The descriptions are, for the most part, based on site visits by trained consultants. The descriptions usually contain information about the nature of the target group, size of the project and the sponsoring institution.

Each of the book's major chapters focuses on a different "new role" for youth: Youth as Curriculum Builders, as Teachers, as Community Manpower, as Entrepreneurs, as Community Problem Solvers, as Communicators (magazines, the arts), as Resources for Youth. Each chapter describes projects in which youth assume active roles in their communities. A number of the projects do approximate the criteria for YOPs. In the Social Studies Lab in Enfield, Connecticut, students produce slide-tapes and other media presentations about subjects of concern to them. Students staff the program and train new students in how to operate equipment. Students plan and develop most of the lab activities and are involved in budgeting (p. 11). In the Bilingual Tutorial Project, Chicano youth, including those of high school and college age, started and staffed a project for teaching English and Spanish to non-English speaking children in Richmond, California. The project was conducted with the assistance of the public schools, but was youth-run (p. 44).

The chapter on "Youth as Entrepreneurs" describes the multiple business enterprises at Manual High School in Denver, Colorado. In this program, high school students worked on urban renewal projects in their community by building houses, fixing sidewalks and doing other construction work. The students formed mini-corporations to manage the work and, through these, participated in all aspects of the renewal projects: borrowing the funds, designing the house, doing the actual construction, and selling the house. The program was based in the school and there was close cooperation with Denver's unions (p. 107). This same chapter describes two other small businesses in which youth had significant roles, Soul Gate Shopping Center in Cleveland and Soul-Mobile Record Shop in Washington, D.C.

Two cultural journalism publications in which students play major roles in the planning, operation and management, are described in the chapter on "Youth As Communicators" (pp. 182-193). These publications (Foxfire and The Fourth Street i) are discussed elsewhere in this paper and we will not describe them here.

The final chapter of New Roles contains practical hints on starting and operating youth participation projects and offers a description of "An Effective Adult Leader," providing some general guidelines that may be useful in YOPs.

(8) Moments: the Foxfire Experience, (Wigginton, 1975) contains a description of the way the Foxfire project is conducted as well as

introductions to the first three Foxfire books. The author is the founder of Foxfire.

Foxfire is a magazine begun in 1966 as the project of an English class in the Rabun Gap-Nacoochee School, situated in the northeast corner of Georgia. Students from the class undertook to study and record the folk and material culture of the elderly residents of their region of the mountains. These people were dying off, and with them, according to the author, a style of life unique to that region was disappearing. The students meet with these poeple, talk with them about their lives, and record their memories and their daily activities. The records on video-tape, audio-tape, photographs and notes are then reworked by the students into the magazine called Foxfire. The magazine is planned, laid out and written by students. Students also are responsible, in consultation with the professional staff, for business aspects of running the magazine (advertising, subscription, accounting, and even writing checks). By 1974, subscriptions to the magazine were bringing in $36,000, which meant that the magazine was generating $11,000 in profits (p. 104).

Doubleday Publishing Company took an interest in the work of the students. Their articles for the magazine were edited and collected in The Foxfire Book, (Doubleday, 1972). Within four years, this book had sold more than one million copies (p. 132). So much interest was generated in Foxfire as an educational project, that it began to receive as many as 14,000 letters a year (p. 133). By now, Foxfire has published its sixth book. Students have used the proceeds from these sales to purchase land in the area and to build a historical restoration (p. 142). They still publish the magazine and use it to advertise local crafts which helps bring income to the people of the area. Organizationally, Foxfire is a non-profit corporation with a national and a community board (both composed of adults). It is directed by an adult (Wigginton), but students play a large role in all aspects of project operation. Students have also helped to disseminate the Foxfire concept to many other communities across the country.

Moments contains a detailed description by Wigginton of how he works with the students. It focuses on how to help students grow from initial shyness and hesitation into assuming an even larger role in the creation of the magazine. Wigginton describes the specific skills that he tries to help students develop (in photography writing, layout, interviewing, marketing). He focuses especially on how skill development and level of difficulty is geared to his personal knowledge of each student's needs.

(9) The Foxfire Book, published in 1972, contins 33 articles written by students about the folk and material culture of the people of the southern Appalachian Mountains. Subjects range from "Building a Log Cabin" to "Soap Making" to "Slaughtering Hogs" to "Faith Healing." All the material was collected by the students in interviews with persons who live in the mountains (northeast Georgia, primarily). The introduction is written by B. Eliot Wigginton, founder of the Foxfire project. It describes how the project got started (as an English class) and some of the early problems.

(10) Foxfire 2, published in 1973, again contains articles written by students about the folk and material culture of the people of Southern Appalachia. The Introduction, by B. E. Wigginton argues for the value of giving young people active and relevant classroom activities (such as the Foxfire project).

(11) In Foxfire 3 (1975), the introduction by Wigginton describes how students are involved in decision-making in the Foxfire project. Students make decisions about such issues as whether a company can use Foxfire in its commercials. Students also vote on such decisions as how to utilize proceeds from the sale of the Foxfire books. They also voted to purchase a 50-acre tract of land that is to be used as a historical restoration site.

(12) In Foxfire 4, (1977), once again, the introduction discusses the educational philosophy behind Foxfire (active and experiential rather than passive), and some projects that have developed either because Foxfire was able to help them using proceeds from its sale of books, or because of Foxfire's influence as a program model.

(13) In the introduction to Foxfire 5 (1979) Wigginton discusses the problems that occur when people feel powerless. He sees Foxfife-type projects as an

answer to this feeling because they train young people in how to be effectual members of a community and bring them closer to their communities:

> Part of the answer, I believe, lies in programs of the type that Foxfire sponsors within--and with the vital support of--the public schools. Such programs build on and reinforce the basic skills that many teachers are struggling to help students master by putting those skills to work in the real world. But more than that, they also build students' self-confidence and conviction of self-worth; they give students an intimate knowlege of the background and culture of their community, out of which the commitment to its future grows; and they give students a working knowledge of the mechanisms by which tasks get done in any community and in ways acceptable to the majority of those concerned (p. 13).

(14) You and Aunt Arie, A Guide to Cultural Jounalism Based on Foxfire and Its Descendants, (Wood, 1975) contains a detailed description of the practical aspects of running a cultural journalism project like Foxfire. The author started one of the Foxfire "descendants". Called Salt, it is based in Maine. The audience for this book is the teacher who runs a Foxfire-type project, or student participant. The chapter titles will make it clear what kinds of information the book contains:

> Getting into It: what you can expect when you work on a magazine that takes its stories from your own community.
>
> You've Got to Decide: the decisions each publication needs to make.
>
> An Interview: how to have a good interview.
>
> Catching an Image: photography.
>
> Darkroom: developing film and making enlargements.
>
> Transcribing: make a word-for-word transcript of a recording.
>
> The Crunch...Writing the Story: how to write a story and some kinds of stories you might write.
>
> The Great Assembly...Layout: Laying out a page so that it attracts the eye.
>
> You're a Business: circulation, advertising, correspondence, printing costs, copywrighting, and other money matters.
>
> And You're Something More: your project is more than a jar of peanut butter.

(15) Student Power: Practice and Promise (Wittes, et al., 1975) describes six alternatives school programs in which students had significant roles in governance. The students helped to shape the kinds and types of services that each school provides. Each school is described in a separate chapter.

The materials in this book are presented in a more systematic fashion than in some of the other publications we have discussed. Each chapter includes discussion of the history and impetus for the new program; the governance structure and the extent to which students participate; the school curriculum and the roles of students and teachers in determiniing it; the values, goals, satisfactions, and dissatisfactions of key participants in each program; and the informal influence structures. There is information on the size, type of student, ethnic ratios, for each school, as well as its relationships to the larger institutions or school system. There is detailed discussion of the process by which decisions are made in each school, and thus of the type of youth-adult collaboration.

Student participation in school governance represents a specialized case of youth operated projects. In all of these projects, students, either through representatives or through school-wide meetings, have a significant role in determining the nature of the services that the school provides, including the content of the curriculum, and the time structure of classes. In several of the schools, students participate in hiring and in allocating funds.

(16) The report by Blake, et al., describes the Youth Employment Planning Team (YEPT) program of the School of Urban Affairs at Portland (OR) State University, held during the summer of 1977. While YEPT did not fit the YOP definition in that it did not produce goods or services, it is pertinent to YOPs in that its purpose was to engage a diverse group of high school age youth in the planning of new, long-term public service employment for young people. The YEPT "was organized as a project-oriented learning situation where youth were employed to study a problem and generate solutions, while at the same time receiving strong educational support to carry out project tasks." By the end of the 10-week project, the local public transit agency had agreed to create 50 year-round jobs for youth, age 15-19, in the agency.

These were to be part-time during the school year, full-time during summer, with academic credit, teacher evaluations and counseling to take related courses provided. Late political developments prevented these jobs from materializing. The report describes the rationale, development and outcomes of the project, including such details as youth recruitment, supervision, training, and generation of strategies for dealing with prospective employers.

The Blake, et al., paper describing the YEPT is among the best examples of a program that combines employment and employability skills with careful attention to systematic education and participation in planning and decision making:

> It was found that allowing youth to design work and educational programs for themselves promotes effective learning and sound program development. (p. 142)
>
> The most effective learning skill development took place when the youths learned about their work and themselves through a process of action/ reflection/ action. (p. 154)

(17) CHARAS: The Impossible Dome Builders (1973) describes a cooperative effort between Buckminster Fuller and a group of young adults and adolescents from New York City's Lower East Side. The young people, many of them former gang members (some former gang leaders), worked to overcome the problems of their impoverished community. They met Fuller and, through him, learned the complex geometry of building geodesic domes. They learned how to build their own domes, planning, designing and operating the dome-building project themselves, and raising funds from local foundations. At one point, the domes were considered as a inexpensive alternative for urban housing. The book's major value is inspirational: it shows how young people can work together to overcome many obstacles and carry out plans that they themselves have developed.

(18) The article by Cribb on "Black Youth Business: Symbol and Showcase" (1972) describes, in part, a fried chicken business that was started by a group of youth in Tampa, Florida. With a starting capital of $10,000 from the Office of Economic Opportunity, and $15,000 from the Greater Tampa Chamber of Commerce, these youth formed an enterprise which brought in $75-$100 a day on

weekdays, and $175 a day on weekends. Students got managerial and on-the-job training, for which they were paid a salary. Profits went to Youth Enterprises of the Tampa Youth Board. This article includes little analysis, and is journalistic in style.

B. Definitions

Each of the sources that treat mutlitple projects employs its own definition for the programs on which it focuses. Only in the case of Rist does this definition correspond to Youthwork's and this paper's definition of youth operated projects. Since the other works do not directly address YOPs, therfore, it seems advisable to review the definition and/or criteria they employ in order to clarify their respective contexts. This will serve the additional purpose of indicating the limitations on any comparisons that may be made among different sources.

Fenton uses the term "youth involvement" to characterize the central feature of the projects he examines:

> What we mean by Youth Involvment is initial participation by project beneficiaries in the determination of the nature of their programs and continuing participation in on-going managerial and policy-making activities. (p. 15)

This concenption is similar to what is sometimes called "organizational youth participation," meaning having a decision-making role in project governance. Its origins are rooted in the "maximum feasible participation" principle of the War on Poverty, which argued that recipients of public services ought to have a voice in how those services are planned and administered. Its rationale, although it accommodates other purposes, is largely political, and is often defended by citing principles of democracy.

The National Commission on Resrouces for Youth uses the term "youth participation" to describe the kinds of programs it promotes. In its most succinct definition of this term, NCRY has noted:

> Youth Participation can thus be defined as involving youth in responsible, challenging action, that meets genuine needs, with opportunity for planning and/or decision making affecting others, in an activity whose impact or consequences extends to others - i.e., outside or beyond the youth participants themselves. (NCRY, 1975, p. 26)

This conception broadens the arena of participatory activity from involvement in the youth project itself to active participation in community life. The emphasis is on engaging youth in maturity-producing experiences that benefit others in addition to themselves. The definition, it should be noted, is NCRY's own, not that of the projects it describes. NCRY uses it as a criterion for selecting those locally-developed projects it wishes to present as models. Although NCRY claims many benefits from youth participation, its primary focus is on meeting the developmental needs of youth while meeting community needs. The principle is applicable, according to NCRY, in a wide range of programs serving youth, including employment, delinquency prevention, educational, community development, social action, and so forth. The YEPT project described by Blake, et al., explicitly adopted NCRY's definition of youth participation to guide its conception and development. (Blake, et al., p. 145)

The Opportunities for Youth (OFY) program in Canada may come closest conceptually to synthesizing the features of the other projects currently under examination. That is because OFY combined youth employment goals with emphasis on project planning and management by youth and on project activities whose benefits extended to others. No formal definition of the youth role was developed for this program, and the three "major goals" were stated rather loosely as (1) to provide employment for students, (2) to ensure that the jobs provided were seen as "meaningful" by the students, and (3) that the program have "a beneficial effect on national unity." Unfortunately for the purposes of this review, the evaluators of OFY saw the program "as a kind of planned 'anarchism'" (p. 7) (in the classical sense of spontaneous self-organization), a condition exacerbated the the last-minute rush to implement it. As a result, many measures of program effects were rather seriously compromised in their usefulness.

C. Forms and Charactierstics of Youth Operated Projects

Introduction

The projects that conform, to a greater or lesser degree, to the definition for youth operated projects as employed in this paper encompass a great range of forms, types and characterisitcs. In fact, virtually anything is possible. The possibilities are nearly as endless as the variety of goods and services, since, theoretically, any project in which youth provide a good or a service could become "youth operated" by giving youth a major role in planning and management.

Several of the works under review offer typologies of the projects they describe. NCRY categories youth participation projects according to what youth do. Chapter headings, as mentioned above, include youth as Curriculum Builders, as Teachers, as Community Manpower, as Entrepreneurs, as Community Problem-Solvers, as Communicators, as Resources for Youth. The Canadian report on Opportunities for Youth offers a typology of its projects, with four main categories (research, recreational, social service and cultural) in 25 subcategories (OFY, p. 45) that is as global as is NCRY's. Rist classifies eight Youthwork sites into four (undefined) "models": Peer Counseling, Brokerage, Profit Making and Work Experience. (1978, p. 54) In a short paper prepared for Youthwork, Graham ventures a different categorization, under "Three Approaches to Youth Operated Programs." The three approaches are (1) shcool-sheltered projects, (2) projects of personal or community services outside of school, and (3) income producing outside of school. (Graham, p. 2)

The questions posed by Youthwork for this paper identified a number of other dimensions on which to examine youth operated projects. In the pages that follow, we have drawn together some information and comments under headings derived from those questions for the purpose of indicating what the literature has to say about each topic. Some representative anecdotal material is cited or presented in order to convey both the content and the quality of the information in the literature.

Generally speaking, the literature does not provide extensive information on any of the questions. Several issues that are central to an assessment of the promise of youth operated projects as a strategy for increasing employment, employability and broader developmental opportunities for youth are not addressed in the literature to any degree whatever. Nowhere, for example, is there any mention of "the relative effect of private sector vs. public sector programmatic experience," whether in terms of outcomes on youth or any other dimension. Nor is there any consideration of the age of youth participants as a factor of any kind in YOPs. The literature is also silent on the subject of financial versus non-financial incentives and disincentives, apart from passing comments such as that a youth leader of a project "felt he wanted people's involvement to be based on their willingness to cooperate and function rather than the money derived from their efforts." (Mottel, p. 25) Finally, there is no information on multi-site YOPs as compared to single site ones.

The Role Of Adults

Adult supervision, or the role of the adult, is the factor that, more than any other, determines whether a project is "youth operated." As noted earlier, any project that involves youth in providing a good or a service can become youth operated by affording youth a major role in planning and management. But judging from the small number of true YOPs relative to the large number of projects in which the role of youth is limited to simple production or service activities as staff, this seldom occurs. There is no inherent reason, for example, why Youth Tutoring Youth programs should not be YOPs, but apart from individual decisions (exceedingly important developmentally to youth) by youth concerning how to teach their "tutees," these programs are nearly always planned and managed by adults.

The issue of the adult role is complicated by the fact that permitting substantial control to be wielded by youth may be a process that takes place over time. Conceivably, a project that is not "youth operated" in its early stages will become so at a later one. Of course, the opposite may occur as well. Fenton describes a grant request for a "youth involvemnt" project which "grew out of thc indigenous activity of a group of local youth and the plan submitted was drawn directly by the youth."

> The board executive and membership structure proposed by Y.F.P. [the youth group] provided for substantial youth involvement in the program submitted. Local adults approved this arrangement though it became clear that their approval was based on the expectation that the program would never be funded. When, in fact, funding appeared possible, a series of abandonments ensued as group after group of adults withdrew their support. (p. 50)

Gaining by youth of a major role in planning and managing a project is of course a developmental process for youth no less than for adults. Treatment in the literature of these issues is typically either anecdotal, as above, or indirect.

The role of the adult supervisor is a topic which has received some attention in the literature. A three-page discussion of the adult role in New Roles for Youth makes reference to the importance of adults who facilitate rather than control youth decision-making, have a strong sense of their own adult identity, and are committed to principles of individual development while sharing a commitment to project goals. (NCRY, 1974, pp. 233-235)

In an account of one of his projects, Fenton observes:

> Youth involvement is frequently frustrated in the face of strong charismatic leadership. However, when such leadership is truly committed to participation by youth, it facilitates the process by adding the weight and prestige of the leader to the ideas and thoughts of the neophyte participants. This is in effect what occurred in Dayton. (p. 47)

Literature on Foxfire provides an outstanding example of a project in which the adult leader took on the role of facilitator, giving major project responsibilites to youth. In this case the adult viewed his responsibilities as those of presenting challenges, insisting on high standards, assisting in fund raising, and adding stability by his adult presence. (McCloseky & Kleinbard, p. 185) Notably, during one project year, the adult supervisor was geographically removed from the project, partcipating through weekly communication and providing a final check of page proofs; during this year the high school students produced a national magazine, virtually on their own. (McCloskey & Kleinbard, p. 174)

Further, reports of the CHARAS experience demonstrate the potential for dramatic outcomes that can be achieved, at least in part, as a result of adult patience and ingenuity. (Hottel)

The literature also provides examples of a variety of models for project supervision. One model is that of "troubled youth" being supervised by young adults (ages 20-25) who have themselves had personal problems, including problems with the law. (Kleinbard & McCloskey, p. 37) Another model is one in which professional volunteers from medical and nursing schools work with students who then work with individual families, serving as liaison between community and medical professionals. In the Foxfire model, senior high school students provide some supervision for junior students, teaching skills to the incoming class which will in turn assume responsibility for passing these skills along.

Reflecting its unsystematic nature, the literature contains almost no discussion concerning ratios of staff to youth participants in YOPs. Rist does report that in Youthwork project the staff/enrollee ratio is "low: in order to provide a strong support system for potential dropouts. (Rist, 1978, p. 48); and a YOP in Portland was reported as having a 3/10 ration. The effectiveness of these kinds of ratios is not evaluated, although an evaluation of the Canadian operated Opportunities for Youth reports participant dissatisfaction when there was a lack of supervisory support. (OFY, p. 49)

Institutional Collaboration

A central purpose of the exemplary in-school demonstration projects administered by Youthwork is to stimulate and learn from differnt forms of collaboration and cooperation among institutions in providing services to youth. As this is a relatively new policy focus in youth programing, it has received little systematic attention in the literature on youth operated projects. The subject is treated anecdotally and superficially, however, in several individual project descriptions.

The one exception to this general lack of direct or in-depth analysis, in the sources reviewed, of institutional collaboration is found in Rist (1978), whose primary focus is "the CETA/school nexus." It might be conjectured that Rist's findings with regard to institutional collaboration probably say more about collaboration under a Youthwork contract than about collaboration related to youth operated projects per se. Rist found essentially the same patterns emerging for the other three program thrusts of Youthwork as for youth operated projects: strained relationships between CETA prime sponsors and schools stemming both from differences in philosophy and style and from sparring over regulations. "Minimal cooperation (fiscal monitoring and space) has occurred at the youth operated projects but... the underlying attitudes are not cooperative and supportive, but hostile." (pp. 42-43)

Rist examined such devices as advisory groups and school-CETA liaison role for facilitating collaboration for youth operated projects, but did not find evidence that they played a key role. (pp. 45-47) The 22 percent set-aside for in-school programs under YETP had no discernible effect on relations between the two organizations. (pp. 47-48) The youth operated projects were found to duplicate some services already offered by other programs; but as a result of Youthwork these were more comprehensive, better integrated and more targeted for disadvantaged youth. (p. 58)

One of the few accounts of institutional collaboration in a youth operated project is found in Blake, et al., which describes support-building efforts undertaken by project members:

> Several members of the youth planning team dffferent ones each time -attended YEPT meetings with the Tri-Met management, the transit workers' union, and representatives of various youth-serving agencies. After each of these meetings the youth and leaders who attended discussed with the entire group what had transpired. (p. 152)

Later, a section entitled "Forming Alliances with Other Agencies to Implement Youth Participation" describes efforts by project leaders. A key alliance was made with the city of Portland's Youth Services Division (YSD) which controlled much of the city's youth employment money. Repeated meetings with the head of the agency led to "a general consensus and an alliance based on mutual trust, common goals, and a philosophy shared by the leaders of YEPT and the YSD."

The literature is never more substantial or specific than this. Hence, answers to such pointed questions posed by Youthwork as "what forms of collaboration and what structural arrangements best serve young people in terms of placing them in private sector, unsubsidized jobs after program completion?" are not close to being found, or even inferrable in the literature.

Community Resources and YOPs

Much of the available literature does not examine in any detail the role of community resources in the implementaion of youth operated projects. The NCRY publications, in particular New Roles for Youth (1974), give this subject the most direct consideration. There is a vivid description, for example, of a series of projects based at Manual High School in Denver. Several of these qualify as youth operated projects. One involved house construction, beginning with the formation by a group of carpentry, masonry and electricity students in the vocational arts program of the Manual High School Realty Corporation, for the purpose of building a house. "Valuable help came from a teacher at Manual who was also a part-time realtor and from a Denver construction company that agreed to sponsor the project. As an initial safeguard, this construction company agreed to complete construction if Manual High School students were unable to finish the project." (p. 109) A Denver bank loaned the project $16,000. In other instances of community support:

> Twenty-six local labor unions cooperated on the project, and a union carpenter worked full time in the Manual High School classrooms to supplement the instruction of the regular industrial arts teachers... A number of construction companies allowed students to use their latest and most elaborate equipment - equipment that most vocational high schools just cannot afford. This helped to insure that skills students acquired and the jobs they learned to do would not be obsolete nor out of line with what might be anticipated by the time they entered the employment market. (p. 109-110)

Eventaully, the house was sold for $2,000 less than the Realty Corporation's out-of-pocket costs. The project led to still bigger projects at the high school, including a leading role in local urban renewal. The Realty Corporation and three other "companies" that had been formed (the Architectural Company, which worked on the design for the house, the Manual Accounting Company, which reviewed the bills, paid them and maintained the books; and the Thunderbolt Construction Company, which was responsible for the actual building of the house) gave way to a new organization, the Creative Urban Living Environment (CULE). Under initial contracts with Denver's urban renewal authorities totaling $61,000, CULE undertook "the rehabilitation of at least fifteen houses, the design fo four mini-parks, the installation of twenty-one blocks of sidewalks, and the publication of a bulletin explaining to local residents their options under the urban renewal program." (p. 113)

Accounts in such detail of the involvement of community resources in youth operated projects are rare, if not nonexistent, in the literature. The project-making enterprise of Black youth in Tampa obtained the assistance of mid-level and top executives of local branches of leading corporations and banks. (Cribb, p. 14) The Community at large is a necessary resource, of course, in the operation of Foxfire (Wigginton), which is based on reporting by students of the particular culture of local inhabitants. It is this culture that makes both the magazine and the book unique and is a major cause of their popularity.

The literature also contains references to negative involvement of community resources. Blake, et al., tell of attempts to persuade the local transit system to cooperate with the Youth Employment Planning Team - attempts that were fruitless until the mayor of Portland (positive resource) criticized the agency's inadequate response to youth needs. (p. 157) CHARAS, the former New York street gang which had built geodesic domes, found one of its domes destroyed by an over-zealous Fire Department. (Mottel, p. 45) Yet they were surprised by the visit of the city's Housing Commissioner, who advised them to get a building permit, adding that his staff would be "receptive and understanding." (Mottel, p. 37)

As these examples illustrate, the literature provides only sketchy and anecdotal information on the subject of community resources in youth operated projects. Nowhere is it systematically treated. The only actual discussion however brief, of the role of community resources as an issue appears in New Roles for Youth:

> Denver's contributions to Manual High School are numerous indeed. They include the use of equipment from construction companies, instruction from union journeymen, bank loans, and a press that has given much favorable publicity to the school. Such support is necessary for student entrepreneur programs that need the kinds of skills and equipment the business world possesses and the schools do not-and perhaps should not. It is much more economical for businesses to supply facilities out of their surpluses than it is for schools to borrow or purchase such facilities on the open market. The latter course would make prohibitive the cost of nearly all realistic student entrepreneur programs. For a school, the challenge is to make its goals sufficiently attractive and its interest sufficiently obvious to persuade community business and labor groups that the cultivation of skills in potential employees and the goodwill generated by providing men and supplies will, in terms of sheer good business sense, ultimately outweight whatever immediate costs are involved. (pp. 129-130)

Size of YOPs

It would be useful to know, of course, if youth operated projects had a typical, or an optimum, number of participants, or if different project conditions, advantages, problems or outcomes could be correlated with different project sizes. Unfortunately, the literature does not provide this information. Mere reports on the number of participants in each project are not difficult to find. The problem is in making some sense of the numbers. They range, for example, from three participants, the minimum in the Canadian Opportunities for Youth Program (which nationally had 27,032 student participants) to several hundred. Number Nine, a drug treatment and peer education program, had a staff of 20 young people (average age 20) (McCloskey and Kleinbard, p. 43). The 12th and Oxford Corporation had a board of directors comprising of 12 local youth: "The youth, board and staff set policy, manage and control the corporation... The Board provides the major vehicle for youth involvement in all aspects of program development and operation." The "program participants" numbered 76. (Fenton, pp. 56,58) But we are not told what the Corporation itself does, nor what the participants do. As these examples illustrate, the figures on number of participants are meaningless because, first, it is not clear whether "participants" are board members, project leaders, project staff, simply "involved" in the project's activities, or some other role, and, second, the projects are so totally different from one another that they would not be comparable even if participants were counted in some uniform manner.

It must be recalled, furthermore, that few of the projects described in the literature are true youth operated projects according to the current definition. Information from Rist on number of participants in Youthwork's YOPs, moreover, only gives a range across the twelve projected sites ("a low of 35 to a high of 300 disadvantaged youth," 1979, p. 33) and a projected total number (1750 youth). In sum, there is little to be learned from the figure on number of participants in youth operated projects. Nowhere in the literature is this treated as an issue in itself.

Another dimension of project size is "dollar volume of sales and services provided" by youth operated projects. Nowhere in the literature are figures reported for dollar volume.

Finanacial Status

Very little attention is given in the literature to the details of the financial status of youth operated projects. There is no information, for example, on the subject suggested by Youthwork's question of "financial plans to utilize income generated by the various youth operated components and to leverage monies from other funding sources." A limited exception is the discussion by Wigginton, in his introduction to Foxfire 3, of how his students vote to decide what to do with proceeds from the Foxfire books. (Wigginton, 1975 (A))

One issue that emerges in the literature is the difficulties that attend income-producing youth employment projects that are created with public funds. How should they be evaluated? Should they be expected to compete in the marketplace? Should they be expected to pay their own way? How should income from project activities be utilized? The issue was faced ten years ago in the projects described by Fenton, who argued that

> success... is properly evaluted by programmatic, rather than commercial, standards in that the ability to plan and conduct such activities is at issue here; such abilities do not insure success in highly competitive industries where forces much beyond the reach of the project will determine outcomes. R.G.S. demonstrated the ability of youth to deal with the complexities of creating businesses with originality and vigor. On the other hand, such attempts as the laudromat by the Hartranft project represent the impossibility of a successful experience in the face of the

> difficulties suffered as a consequence of their status as a federally-funded project. This status rendered the group unable to deal with such exigencies as contracts, leases, purchases and the like. (p. 102)

NCRY also takes a position on the issue of the self-sufficiency of youth operated business ventures:

> A program for student entrepreneurs must perform at least two jobs; the businesses with which it may compete have to perform only one. To compete with an established business, a student program must do a job at the standard price; to achieve its long-range educational purpose, the project must teach the students how to do the job - and that involves developing related skills that may never have seemed significant to a student before. This in itself is a value that is probably of more enduring worth than the financial success of a student enterprise. It is doubtful, in fact, that the value of a given project should be assessed with great emphasis on fianancial profit. When a school performs its related educationnal tasks, a project almost inevitably, and justifiably, winds up costing more money than can be charged for the job that is being done. (NCRY, 1974, p. 128.)

Only Rist addresses the problem of disposal of income produced by a project. It is mentioned in the context of a discussion of CETA-LEA relations, and the restrictions placed on project-produced income by federal regulations. Rist reports that the problem was resolved, but does not say how:

> Three CETA prime sponsors began their association with the youth initiated projects by interpreting regulations so stringently as to inhibit any creativity project operators might have shown. This resulted in reduced flexibility which in turn increased the time needed to successfully implement the exemplary programs. An example of this occurred at five sites where there was a question as to how income produced by projects was to be used. These sites wanted to funnel the money back into the projects for capital spending or increased stipends for the youth. Two prime sponsors and one regional DOL denied this request initially but subsequently (two months later) reversed themselves and allowed this money to be spent to help sustain the project. This is but one example of how CETA regulations and DOL guidelines slowed the development of the youth operated projects. Our data indicate that now, nine months since contracts were signed, this issue has been resolved at these five sites.

Outcomes for Youth

There are many claims in the literature for a variety of positive program outcomes for youth as a result of participation in YOPs. These range over skills acquisition, attitude changes, educational growth, career exploration and job placement. These claims are often made convincingly, and they may well be valid. For the most part, however, substantiation is purely anedcotal.

The literature, in fact, is practically devoid of evaluations that treat program outcomes. Even less does it contain reports on pre- and post-testing, except occasionally to imply that such took place. Occasional references to evaluation results tend to be second hand and non-specific - for example, "Tests conducted at the program's conclusion showed that most participants had not only learned a practical work skill but had also improved their business vocabulary and their mathematics skills." (NCRY, 1974, p. 123) The evaluation of the Canadian Opportunities for Youth program, the only quantitative report on outcomes, is limited by reporting aggregrate results of over 2,000 projects that the authors acknowledge to be baffling in their diversity. (OFY, pp. iii-iv) The outcomes can be of interest only in terms of this one large-scale Canadian experiment.

These caveats noted, the literatrue does contain some descriptive accounts of the processes by which programmatic activities lead to desired and significant outcomes. Blake, et al., for example, offer the following:

> The most effective learning and skill development took place when the youths learned about their work and themselves through a process of action/reflection/action. The youths acted upon their environment in a constructive project, they discussed and summed up their experience (successes and failures), learned related theory and history and technical skills related to more successful completion of their project, and then returned to the project armed with their new understanding. Such education was directed toward the solution of a particular problem, unlike the prevalent banking model of education, in which teachers deposit "knowledge" in a youth's head and expect him/her to draw it out and apply it many years later.
>
> This type of learning experience developed personal skills (responsibility, decision-making, compassion, cooperation, working in groups, and personal problem-solving) as well as technical,

> vocationally-related skills. Youth were working at jobs which will hopefully be related to their future careers, and they had a significant voice in deciding what they want to do and how it should be done. Youths also made choices now, rather than learning about making them in the future. (pp. 145-146)

The strength of an account such as this is also its weakness, that is, its program specificity. It is of a piece with the context of the project; outcomes are inseparable from a unique process. To take another example, Foxfire students are described as having acquired a discipline for learning, an appreciation of interdisciplinary learning, a sense of community responsibility, and sensitivity to the arts and their role in enhancing communication. In addition,

> Foxfire students have acquired vocational skills which are transferable, marketable, and useful during one's lifetime, i.e., editing and writing, photography, darkroom marketing, bookeeping, printing, typing, filing transcribing, design, organization and management, circulation, advertising, public relations, public speaking, museum curation, community leadership, banking. (Wigginton, 1975, p. vii)

The trouble with these reported outcomes, and many like them in the literature, is not their credibility, nor even (for the moment) the fact that they are not substantiated. The problem, for the purposes of this paper, is that results are not meaningful without a systematic understanding of what produced them. It is the systematic treatment of program components and how they relate to outcomes that advances knowledge, and that is missing from the literature.

In a paper prepared for Youthwork, Pressman invokes a need to identify "differential outcomes" of youth operated projects - that is, those outcomes which seem to relate most directly to the fact that they are youth-operated. It is these differential outcomes, the ones that differentiate youth operated projects from other program forms, on which the question of YOPs as a policy issue depends. As yet, such outcomes have not been identified in the literature.

The "weakness" of the literature in answering certain policy-related questions, however, should not be mistaken for a weakness in the projects themselves. There can be little doubt that most of the projects described in the literature were quite effective in their own terms - and not just because it is successful projects that tend to get written about. The absence of systematic measures of program effectiveness means only that success was not measured, not that it did not occur. The distinction is an important one, particularly for program operators, who do not need tests and measures to tell them whether they were successful. For the, success is self-evident, or easily "proven" by showing the outcomes that to them are far more meaningful than test results - a carefully constructed house, a popular magazine, an old person who is less lonely, a youth who is coping better personally now, a group of youths who feel a new sense of confidence in their ability to make decisions.

The issue goes deeper than finding ways to measure these gains. One must seriously consider the effect on these programs of subjecting them to rigorous evaluation. Many of them did not evolve in systematic fashion, as the literature amply reflects. In contrast to some projects that result from federal initiatives, they operate unencumbered by externally imposed regulation and reporting procedures. It is realistic to suspect that their functioning would be altered, perhaps significantly, by the demands of policy imperatives for more systematic knowledge, testing and control.

To say that the needs of policy makers are sometimes in conflict with the needs of practitioners is not to force a choice. The point, rather, is to recognize the legitimacy of both sets of needs, and to seek an appropirate balance. The need from a policy point of view to identify and measure differential outcomes of youth operated projects, for example, should not be allowed to bury the need at the project level for the exercise of creativity, spontaneity, risk taking and other such elusive ingredients of program effectiveness. Rather than conventional monitoring, testing and control procedures, there is a need to develop what have been called "ecologically gentle" methodologies.

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III. RECOMMENDATIONS

Over the past twenty years there has been a proliferation of federally funded programs designed to deal in various ways with problems related to youth unemployment; some of these programs have also been concerned with easing the transition from school to work, increasing educational attainment, and enhancing adolescent development.

Recently there have been efforts to pull together what is known about the operation and effects of these youth programs* and to study additional programs within a knowledge development framework designed to provide comparative data on certain types of program outcomes and program components.** No doubt, some of the data produced from this research may be generalizable in its applicability to youth operated projects, especially since a few of the programs being studied probably qualify as YOPs, though they are not so labeled.***

If implementation of effective youth operated projects is considered important however, additional knowledge development activities specifically keyed on YOPs will be needed. Notable gaps in knowledge have been documented in Section II, prepared in response to a series of questions posed by Youthwork, Inc. Similar questions about the operation and outcomes of YOPs, recorded in papers written by Graham and by Pressman, remain unanswered.

Designing a knowlege development plan which would answer some of these questions is beyond the scope of this paper. However, based on the literature review and our own knowledge of youth operated projects and other forms of youth participation, we offer some thoughts and recommendations which might be considered in the design of such a plan. The following are discussed: (1) Issues arising from problems of defintion, (2) Defining program goals and objectives, (3) Some short term research strategies, and (4) Some short term capacity-building strategies.

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*See, for example, Mangum and Walsh, Taggart, and Walther.

**See, for example, the plans and studies outlined in U.S. Department of Labor, A Knowledge Development Plan for Youth Initiatives/Fiscal 1979.

***For example, Aunt Martha's Youth Industries, Park Forest, Illinois; projects of The Corporation for Youth Enterprises, Washington, D.C.; programs of The Corporation for Public/Private Ventures, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; and Junior Achievement Adaptation, San Diego, California.

(1) Issues arising from problems of definition.

As we have noted, there is not definition, consistently acknowledged of what constitutes a youth operated project. Given this conceptual looseness, there is no way to verify that any particular program under study is actually functioning as a youth operated project. As mentioned in Section II, Rist encountered exactly this issue when he studied twelve projects labeled as "youth operated" and found that only two "accurately fit the 'youth operated' title." (Rist, 1978, p. 59)

Given this absence of clarity, some cautionary points are in order. For one thing, it is important that the concept of the youth operated project, as a programmatic strategy for enhancing youth development and employment, be kept from becoming overly identified with any individual attempts to implement it. The danger is that unsuccessful attempts at implementing any single YOP model, such as "entrepreneurships" or "brokerage,: may serve to discredit the broader concept of YOPs themselves. For example, while some youth entrepreneurships may be categorized as YOPs, negative results from evaluations of entrepreneurships should not necessarily point to the failure of the YOP concept; nor would positive results validate other kinds of program models.

Similarly, results from the study of early experimental "approximation" of YOPs should be interpreted cautiously. Consider, for example, the Youthwork projects, established as part of a knowledge development effort to learn more about implementing YOPs. One might expect that, in some of the cases studied, youth may start out with little role in planning and management, but that their participation will be gradually increased as the project finds its way. Given this necessary process of program development, it would be premature to measure proximate outcomes of such a project and to interpret them, without qualification, as "outcomes of a YOP."

A related point concerns the composition and size of any research sample. There is a wide range of practical variations on the theoretical concept of the youth operated project. Variations encompass, first, those that reflect different sets of program goals or intended outcomes; but in addition, within programs which share similar goals, there is the possibility for a range of variations among program components, such as quality of adult supervision, type of youth involvement, provision for career exploration, and so forth. Until distinctions among programs are made explicit, there may be a tendency to lump dissimilar youth operated projects into the same study sample, obscuring program differences and yielding data about average program outcomes which are not really representative of any of the program models. It is especially important, methodologically, to attend to program differences and to study "enough" YOPs to obtain a fair sampling of the range of program variations.

In sum, there is an immediate need to clarify the operational defintion of "youth operated projects." It is also important to clarify distinctions among various kinds of program models with respect to both intended outcomes, and program components

(2) Defining Program Goals and Objectives.

In a paper entitled "Job Creation Through Youth Operated Projects: What We Need to Learn and Why We Need to Learn It," Harvey Pressman summarizes results of a conference held in May, 1978. One of the issues discussed is the importance of determining whether there is anything about youth operated projects that makes them "special"--different, better, worse -- than other kinds of projects for youth. As Pressman notes, gaining insights into this issue requires information on such potential program outcomes as development of management skills, maturity, coping skills, self assurance, humane qualities, and employability skills (pp. 4-5).

From a policy perspective, information concerning these outcomes is needed because the overarching issue regarding public support of youth programs is

> What kinds of activities, and in what combinations, will best further the total development of youth between the ages of 16 and 21? (Barton and Fraser, Vol. 1, p. 82)

This is not a radical or new idea, but it does serve as a timely reminder, given pressures to evaluate many youth programs in terms of immediate job placement or "positive termination." Short term accountability, as provided through such data as immediate placement, is important. But these objectives relate to only a small part of "the total development of youth." There are obvious dangers in relying heavily on one or serveral easily measured immediate program outcomes, for this can result in the neglect of other desirable, though more elusive, kinds of outcomes that may have a long term effect on employability, career advancement, or the generation of citizenry with desired human and social qualities.

Thus the broader perspective reflected in the Pressman paper is important. It is encouraging, too, that the knowlege development plan of DOL demonstrates a similar concern for attending to the range of potential outcomes from certain kinds of federally funded youth programs.

In theory, at least, youth operated projects provide an opportunity for meeting some of the developmental needs of youth that extend beyond the goal fo short term job placement. It is important that efforts be made to define, operationalize and validate these outcomes of youth operated projects.

(3) Short Term Knowlege Development Activities.

Several short term knowlege development activities which seem appropriate are outlined below. We recommend that these, as well as other kinds of studies of youth operated projects, be conducted witin an interdisciplinary framework, the importance of which is argued by Barton and Fraser. They point out that no single field of research comprehends the study of all the factors involved in the transition process which prepares youth for work and for assuming adult roles (Summary, p. 33). Their report makes a strong case, which we endorse as particularly applicable to youth operated projects, for an interdisciplinary approach to the study of youth employment--for research efforts which synthesize concepts, methodologies and findings from a variety of fields including: "knowlege of market forces: youth cultures; identity, self-esteem, and motivation; learning theory and practice; juvenile justice administration; employment skill acquisition; and organizational behavior." (Summary, p. 14)

Recommended short term knowledge development activities are the following:

a) Preparation of one or several concept papers.

One or several papers are needed to clarify the definition of "youth operated project." One or several papers might also initiate the process of operationalizing and validating the outcomes of youth operated projects. Questions such as the following might be addressed: What outcomes are desired from YOPs? What can be realistically expected? How might program achievements be operationalized? What might achievements cost in terms of financial commitments as well as the costs of "options foregone" (i.e., forgoing programmatic attempts to achieve competing goals)?

b) Study of "YOPs that work"

Given recent national interest in youth operated projects, as well as a growing number of programs qualifying as YOPs at the grass root level, it would be useful to have some immediate information on the operation and outcomes of effective programs as distinct from projects still in the developmental stage. The literature review of Section II documents that such information is not available at present.

One way to generate some of this information would be to conduct studies of existing programs, relying heavily on site visits to gather qualitative observations as well as quantitative information on program components and outcomes. For this initial step, "outstanding" or "successful" programs might be selected by canvassing persons knowledgeable of the field, and asking them to select program candidates for further study. There are a number of organizations, of which NCRY is only one, for which files on youth projects are maintained. Conversations with persons in some of these organizations* suggest that files do contain at least some descriptions of programs which fit the YOP definition.

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*Such organizations include Junior Achievement; National Association of Counties; National Endowment for the Humanities, Office of Youth Programs; U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Youth Program Models and Innovations; and The Robert F. Kennedy Memorial.

Analysis of successful existing programs has practical appeal as a knowlege development strategy because it eliminates the time and expense of setting up experimental projects and waiting for them to develop into fully operational programs.

c) Comparative Studies

Studies conducted within a comparative framework would yield information not only on what "works", but also on "what works best." Comparative analyses might focus on (1) program variations among various types of YOPs, (2) YOPs with goals relating to youth employment as compared with other youth employment projects which are not youth managed, and (3) YOPs as compared with other models for youth participatiopn (of which the YOP offers only one set of variations).

This is a more sophisticated research task than that proposed in (b), above, but still has the practical appeal of generating information from existing programs.

d) Retrospective case histories of what happened to youth from outstanding YOPs

A difficult but important question concerns the long term effects on individuals participating in youth operated projects. Most research is limited by having to measure immediate program effects whereas, as discussed above, many of the experiences gained in YOPs may not have consequences until later in adult life.

We are aware of projects, such as Foxfire and others, which fit the YOP definition and have been in existence for eight years or longer. Informal inquiries indicate that it would be possible to identify and interview some of the young adults who first participated in these programs and to trace their histories of employment and human development. This would be an initial step in gathering longitudinal data of importance for a comprehensive evaluation of the impacts of YOPs.

(4) Capacity-building strategies

To foster interdisciplinary collaboration and to enhance YOP implementation, we offer several final remarks. First, the proposal of Barton and Fraser for various forms of "networking" (Summary, p. 9) among researchers, including the conduct of interdisciplinary meetings and the circulation of a newsletter, seems particularly appropriate to YOP knowledge development efforts. We would add to this recommendation that thought also be given to providing more opportunities for dialogue between policy makers and practitioners, who may share similar interests, but have different ways of conceptualizing and prioritizing issues related to program implementation.

Finally, we would emphasize the importance of various kinds of training and support services for adult supervisors of youth operated projects. Assuming the responsibility of supervisor, while at the same time encouraging youth decision making, it in most cases an unfamiliar and difficult role for adults to assume. Our experience suggests that this capactiy can be enhanced by providing adult supervisors opportunity to meet with, or view films of, peers who are successful in this adult role, working with youth.

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Appendix A:

Sources Consulted During Literature Search

Appendix B:

Youthwork Questions

APPENDIX A.

Sources Consulted During Literature Search

Bibligraphies from the following sources were consulted:

Catalog of Materials for Youth Programs. Listing of Available Technical Assistance and Training Materials and Films. U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Office of Youth Programs. September, 1979.

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Youth Project, Youth Library. National Association of Counties Research Inc.

Youthworkd Bibliography. National Youthworker Education Project. Center for Youth Development and Research. University of Minnesota. January, 1978.

In addition, the folloiwng individuals were interviewed to obtain their recommendations on sources of information pertinent to the literature search:

Marion Blakey. National Endowment for the Humanities, Office of Youth Programs (telephone interview).

Pam Clark. U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Youth Programs.

Frank Cole. U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Youth Programs.

Christine Davis. Community Youth Enterprises.

Evelyn Ganzglass. U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Youth Programs.

David Hackett. Robert F. Kennedy Memorial, The Youth Policy Institute.

Harry Lieberman. U.S. Department of Labor, OPER.

John Lindia. U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Career Education.

Verne McArthur. Institute of Human Services, New Hampshire College.

Ellem McGiver. National Association of Counties.

Ann Radford. National Association of State Boards of Education. (telephone interview).

John Walsh. Co-author of Employment and Training Programs for Youth. (See above for complete reference. (telephone interview).

Pat Wilkenson. U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Youth Programs.

Finally, the following individuals were consulted, briefly through telephone interview:

Garth Mangum. University of Utah. Co-author of Employment and Training Programs for Youth. (See above for complete reference).

Ray Rist. Youthwork National Policy Study, Cornell Universtiy.

John Russell. American Vocational Association, Youth Entrepreneurship Program.

Jane Seidman. U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Youth Programs.

Bernadine Watson. Corporation for Public/Private Ventures.

Gregory Wurzberg. National Council on Employment Policy.

APPENDIX B.

Youthwork's Questions On Youth Operated Projects

1. What forms of collaboration among employment, training educational (including colleges and universities), and rehabilitation institutions (including CBO's) are the most effective and the most successful in facilitating the school-to-work transition sequence? Specifically, what forms of collaboration and what structural arrangements best serve the young people in terms of placing them in private sector, unsubsidized jobs after program completion? How can school systems incorporate youth operated projects as part of their learning programs?

2. What do we know about the relative effect and value of private sector vs. public sector programmatic experience in terms of skills acquired, later (after program) job placement, career and educational success, and overall (long-term) employability? To what extent does what type of programmatic experience change/alter the impact as a result of the age of the participants?

3. What do we know about the significance of financial and nonfinancial incentives and disincentives, e.g., barriers, to participants? Is there a different impact of differing levels of financial and nonfinancial incentives on participant performance and project outcomes?

4. What do we know about the characteristics of youth operated enterprises, e.g., do they provide goods or services? What is the size of the youth operated enterprises, both in terms of number of participants and dollar volume of sales and services provided? (The intent in this question is to get a clear impression of the descriptive characteristics of youth operated enterprises to better understand the differences and similarities among them.) Specific questions will include: How can community resources be brought together in the implementation of youth operated projects?

5. What do we know about the quality of work supervision of the youth operated enterprise participants by professional staff? What were the number of and types of skills developed by participants in youth operated projects? What is the amount of career exposure and exploration to which the participants in youth operated projects have ben exposed, and how has it affected their career planning? What do we know about the length of time participants have spent in given enterprises during the length of the projects? What do we know about changes in participants; attitudes and beliefs as a result of youth operated projects? What kinds of pre- and post-testing were done to determine the project's impacts?

6. What do we know about how programs devised financial plans to utilize income generated by the various youth operated components and to leverage monies from other funding sources? How were the plans operationalized? Where were they weak and where were they strong, and what does this tell us about the need for planning for leveraging income from other sources and for utilizing the income generated by youth operated projects?

7. What do we know about how well multiple sites/programs administered by a single operator function? What does it say about the problems in managing a multi-site youth operated enterprise?

8. What do we know about the various forms, kinds, and types of youth operated enterprises, both income and nonincome generating? What are the salient and central characteristics of each type of enterprise, how they work, and their long-term durability? (The intent of this question is to identify and describe the various kinds of youth operated projects/ enterprises and how they work.) Specific questions will include:

   - How can useful projects be identified, planned, and operated by youth?
   - How can retired or experienced entrepreneurs be brought in to assist youth in running projects?

October 1979

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE:
EXPANDED PRIVATE SECTOR INVOLVEMENT

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FORWORD

America characterizes itself, and is characterized by others, as a capitalistic, private enterprise society. This characterization, indeed, serves as an important standard against which the condition of our political and economic system is assessed.

Even governmentally-sponsored programs (or perhaps especially governmentally-sponsored programs) are held accountable in terms of this standard. Welfare, unemployment insurance, health insurance programs, etc., must be prepared to withstand (especially at their point of initiation) what amounts to a political litmus paper test: "Does the initiative promote the private enterprise system or does it contribute to its erosion?"

The rhetoric of almost any new governmental initiative, as a result, is filled with language attesting that the program is not only consistent with but will, ultimately, strengthen our private enterprise society.

The history of manpower programs, and of what are now less chauvinistically called employment and training programs, does not present an exception to this rule. From the outset these programs have been argued for in terms of "making youth productive members of our society;" "keeping youth from becoming permanent members of society's welfare roles;" and "preparing youth for transition into permanent employment in our private enterprise economy."

These governmentally-sponsored efforts to help youth (and particularly "disadvantaged" youth) make the transition from school-to-work are the general subject of this paper. The specific emphasis, however, is on the extent to which the private sector has become effectively involved with these programs and made contributions to resolving the problems which gave rise to them.

The logic of involving the private sector in these programs in theory seems inescapable. If, in fact, the programs are aimed principally at preparing ("disadvantaged") youth for participation in our private enterprise economy it is difficult, indeed, for either government or the private sector to fail to declare, and make a show of, their interest in working vigorously to accomplish this objective.

However, in practice, and in the long-run, both government and the private sector have managed to elude this logic. It seems that government and the private sector mix like oil and water. For example, what seemed to develop as a genuine commitment on the part of government and the private sector to work together on manpower programs, through such initiatives as Plans for Progress and the National Alliance of Businessmen, fairly quickly gave way to a state of affairs where the form but not the substance of commitment to private sector involvement was maintained.

With the passage of the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977 (YEDPA) and the passage of the 1978 Comprehensive Employment and Training Act, which contains a Title VII calling for a major Private Sector Initiatives Program (PSIP), another crossroads in terms of getting the government and the private sector to work together on what has been the intractable problem of youth unemployment seems to have been reached.

The experience of transition programs to date is that without private sector involvement there is not the impact we hope for in preparing youth for employment. What reasonable expectations can we have, however, as to what can be accomplished in resolving youth unemployment and transition from school to work problems if the public and private sectors do commit themselves to working together? What are the conditions that must exist for such commitment and involvement to go beyond public relations to sustained and effective contributions?

At this juncture, when the hopes for private sector involvement seem newly emergent, these questions above seem to be key ones. It seems particularly important therefore to review the literature and the evaluations and assessments of past efforts involving the private sector in transition from school-to-work to see what instruction they can provide. The writing of this paper provided opportunity for such a review. Based on it, "what do we know and what don't we know" about private sector involvement in youth transition?

The principal conclusion is that this whole field of private sector involvement with youth transition programs, while rich in anecdotal examples, is very poorly documented and researched in any formal sense. The result is that, in spite of substantial experimentation, we really know little about what motivates and sustains private sector involvement and what outcomes can be expected from such participation.

What this conclusion of course implies is that there is need for a wide range of more formal analyses of private sector involvement efforts from case studies to formal evaluations of existing programs of promise, to new program development and research efforts. These analyses of private sector involvement need to occur at a variety of levels from the conceptual (why, under what conditions, with what objectives) to the technical (how, with what incentives and assistance, involving whom, with what accountability structures).

Finally, we should consider the possibility that the sparcity of formal, objective analyses reflects resistance of the actors and the issues to formal analysis. What we do know suggests private sector sensitivity to more paper work and more intense scrutiny as a "reward" for their involvement. What we do know suggests that the area is sufficiently complex that it has been difficult to discern the impact of discrete variables on outcomes, such as the impact of minimum wages on private sector hiring of youth.

The paper states frustration with the failure to clearly delineate the objectives of private sector involvement programs and the inability to draw comparisons between various approaches because of the lack of standardized measures.

Indeed, this may all suggest that the design of knowledge development tools to learn more about what seems to work and at what cost may be as important as the challenge of devising youth programs which more closely involve the private sector.

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I. PRIVATE SECTOR INVOLVEMENT IN YOUTH TRANSITION TO WORK PROGRAMS: REVIEW AND SYNTHESIS OF RESEARCH LITERATURE

Overview

In January of 1968 President Lyndon Johnson called the nation's top business leaders to the White House to enlist their aid in a difficult task: creating jobs for thousands of youth in urban ghettos which had been the scene of widespread riots and looting during the previous two years. The idea was simple: get the kids off the streets and into paying jobs and hope the long, hot summers would cool off. There were other good reasons for business and industry to accept the challenge -- a shortage of entry-level workers and pressure from civil rights groups to hire minorities. Out of that difficult time, the National Alliance of Businessmen was born. In many ways, its creation also marked the first time in recent history that the federal government had made a serious attempt to involve the private sector in solving the nation's fast-growing youth unemployment problem.

Much lip-service has been paid the notion that business and industry have a role in hiring and training youth and easing the transition from school to work. After a period of decline, the NAB again is active and in the summer of 1978 placed more than 231,000 youth in jobs at no cost to the government. But the government has tried other approaches to involve the private sector since NAB was created more than a decade ago. The Neighborhood Youth Corps, Job Corps, Manpower Development and Training Act, Vocational Education Act, career education, Comprehensive Employment and Training Act, Vocational Exploration Program, Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects -- the list is a familiar one. All have tried -- at least sporadically -- to get business people interested in the employment problems of youth.

Given the billions of dollars spent during the past decade on federal youth programs and the often-serious attempts made at collaborating with the private sector, one might assume a large reservoir of knowledge about which programs work, which don't, and why. However, this isn't the case.

During an exhaustive two-month search, we turned up only a handful of recent comprehensive evaluations on the success or failure of youth programs involving the private sector. We were especially interested in programs for in-school and disadvantaged youth. Certainly, a number of isolated studies have been written which give insights into why one program in one area turned out the way it did. There are also several national evaluations of programs run under the Manpower Development and Training Act, the predecessor to CETA.

One should be cautious, however, in applying results of these MDTA studies to the present situation. MDTA had many more separate programs than CETA and was centrally run from Washington instead of through a decentralized network of state and local governments. It also was created during a period of relatively low unemployment, low inflation and economic boom.

Labor Department Programs Since CETA

Striking, though, is the absence of private sector program evaluations since the demise of MDTA. There is an often-heard explanation for this: Just after CETA got off the ground in 1974, the nation was hit by a severe recession. Unemployment soared, and local prime sponsors found themselves hard-pressed to place CETA clients in private sector jobs which didn't exist.

The economic scene was beginning to improve somewhat when Jimmy Carter was elected President in 1976, but unemployment still was severe. One of Carter's early moves was to double public service employment under CETA. Prime sponsors again were hard-pressed, but managed to put 725,000 jobless people on the CETA payroll. The speed at which jobs were created precluded any close involvement with the private sector.

The role of business and industry has come up again only during the past year or so as overall unemployment has declined. Yet the problems of youth have, if anything, become more severe. Recognizing this, the Carter administration urged passage of the billion-dollar-a-year Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act (YEDPA) and a $400 million Private Sector Initiative Program (PSIP) to expand job and training opportunities for the hard-to-employ. Congress agreed. At the same time, Congress also recognized the growing youth unemployment problem and in October 1978 chopped 100,000 public service jobs from CETA reauthorizing legislation and transferred $400 million in spending authority to youth jobs and on-the-job training.

Whether YEDPA or PSIP will yield new data on involving the private sector remains to be seen. YEDPA, especially, should prove a rich source of new information, given its emphasis on knowledge development.

School-Based Programs: Vocational Education, Career Education, Cooperative Education and Related Efforts

If research is scanty on private sector involvement in Labor Department employment and training programs, what of the success of school-based private sector programs? Again, the evidence is slim, but the reasons are different.

On a small scale, cooperation between education and industry has been going on with little fanfare for decades, but only recently has it begun to get any real attention. Traditionally, the private sector's main contact with students during the school year has been through part-time jobs and organizations such as Distributive Education, Jr. Achievement and a variety of civic groups.

Career Education

While some of the programs are career oriented, none has any measurable goals and none has ever been evaluated for effectiveness. Cooperative education, too, has long been popular and fortunately there are some studies to measure its success that will be discussed later in this paper. A real turning point, however, was the advent of career education in 1971, made possible in large part by the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968. Since that time, the federal government has spent more than $80 million on career education activities. Almost all of this amount has been used for demonstration projects of various types. Despite the rhetoric of career educators that participation by the private sector is essential, the U.S. Office of Education has never funded the formal evaluations necessary to find out which approaches work best.

This situation may change if and as the new Career Education Incentive Act is implemented during the next five years. First-year funding (for fiscal

1979) is set at $20.0 million and the U.S. Office of Career Education is emphasizing private sector involvement.

Vocational Education

Much of the early career education money came from the Vocational Education Act. Here too, program evaluation is a relative rarity. The General Accounting Office pointed that out in 1974 in a severely critical report.* While working to reauthorize the Vocational Education Act in 1976, Congress became so exasperated with the lack of data that it mandated a five-year national study to be conducted by the National Institute of Education. That study is now under way at the direction of Dr. Henry David of the University of Texas.

The data problem in vocational education continues. Unable to find out from the U.S. Office of Education how funds for vocational "programs of national significance" were spent during fiscal 1978, Congress cut nearly $20 million from the appropriation for 1979.

Cooperative Education

In terms of research, cooperative education is one of the better-documented efforts involving the private sector. In cooperative education programs, students spend half a day in the classroom and the other half in a paid work setting related to their school work. Programs may be at the secondary or postsecondary level. Ernst Stromsdorfer in 1973 [1] published an extensive evaluation of the employer-initiated co-op program in Dayton, Ohio, while the U.S. Office of Education in 1976 published a two-part study of high school cooperative education authorized under the Vocational Education Act. The study was done by Systems Development Corporation and Olympus Research Company. These are the major sources of data.

On the other hand, a study of postsecondary cooperative education completed in 1976 by the Detroit Institute of Technology was the first full-scale evaluation in that program's 73 year history. [2]

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* "What Is the Role of Federal Assistance in Vocational Education?" U.S. General Accounting Office, Dec. 28, 1974.

Thus, we are faced with the difficult task of drawing conclusions from a collection of evaluations done in the late 1960's and early 1970's under MDTA and a smattering of studies of school-based programs linked with the private sector. A large number of projects are either planned or under way. These will measure the effects of YEDPA, the new Career Education Incentive Act, vocational education, CETA's Summer Program for Economically Disadvantaged Youth, Vocational Exploration Program and the Private Sector Initiative Program.

Within five years or so we may know much more about involving the private sector in youth transition to work programs.

Our goal in this paper is to extract from the available literature data which might serve as a nucleus for future knowledge development efforts. Specifically, we wanted to know what works and why regarding 10 central policy issues:

*collaboration among employment, training, private sector employers, schools and other agencies
*The relative effect and value of private sector vs. public sector work experiences
*Various incentives to increase private sector involvement
*Various incentives to encourage participation by youth in work experience or training activities
*Barriers to greater private sector involvement
*Attitudes of employers, schools and community-based organizations to joint participation in youth programs
*The accuracy, fairness and utility of criteria used to measure program effectiveness
*Improved preparation of work supervisors and better use of unions, individuals and groups as world- of-work resources for youth
*Support services for youth in private-sector work activities
*Unreal expectation of youth toward their future employment and new approaches to apprenticeship

In the remainder of this paper, we will review the literature on the success and weakness of federal youth transition programs, discuss what research tells us we know and don't know about each of the 10 issues of critical concern, then examine some assumptions underlying policy and practice which either are justified or not justified by the research findings.

Some Definitions

Two legitimate questions to ask at this point, however, are what is meant by "private sector participation" and what constitutes a "youth transition-to-work" program? Private sector participation may be viewed as a continuum. In reviewing the literature, evidence of some kind of minimum contact between the private sector and other youth-serving organizations such as schools or job training agencies was sought. An example of minimum participation would be an informal arrangement between a vocational school and a local business for the referral of graduates. Another example would be participation by local business people on an advisory board for career education, job training, or similar youth-oriented effort. An absolute minimum level of involvement would be the use by private employers of DOL subminimum wage certificates for hiring youth.

Further along the continuum would be the provision of work experience or part-time employment slots for students by private employers. Such programs as cooperative education or Experience-Based Career Education (EBCE) come under this intermediate category.

At the far end of the continuum are those rare initiatives in which the private sector is deeply involved in the collaborative design of a comprehensive youth work preparation program, provides jobs and training opportunities and hires all or some of the successful completers. The Department of Labor's recent $3 million contract with Control Data Corp. (in which the firm guarantees training and placement of Job Corps graduates) is a program in which the private sector is deeply involved.

The term "school-to-work transition" is a recent invention that has come to denote a fairly specific group of programs, all of which are designed to help young people make the transition from the classroom to the workplace. This paper defines youth as anyone between the ages of 16 and 24, a category used by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. A transition-to-work initiative includes any of the following: collaboration between schools and other employment-related community groups; work exploration; vocational counseling; work experience, career education; vocational education; on-the-job training; occupational information and experimental efforts such as the Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects.

The perimeters of this review were self-selecting in two ways. Because the paper is limited to assessment of evaluation (as opposed to descriptive or anecdotal) data, such interesting but poorly documented topics as the impact of school-based job placement centers have been omitted.

In addition, emphasis was placed on programs in which the federal government plays or played a role (usually financial), because the paper is intended to be useful in the formulation of federal policy. It also is true that federal programs generally tend to be better documented.

In summary, this literature review covers a broad continuum, from minimal participation such as the use of minimum wage waivers to deep involvement such as hiring guarantees. It is limited to evaluation studies, especially those focusing on federal programs and revolves around the ten policy issues. Other programs in which the federal government plays a less obvious role (such as cooperative education) also are included, however.

II. BACKGROUND: A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF FEDERAL TRANSITION-TO-WORK YOUTH PROGRAMS INVOLVING THE PRIVATE SECTOR

While creation of the National Alliance of Businessmen marked an important step toward greater involvement by the private sector, Congress long before had mandated that more attention be paid the youth unemployment problem when it passed amendments to the Manpower Development and Training Act in 1963. A number of experimental youth programs sprang from this mandate, but only a few emphasized participation by business and industry. By 1967, a goal had been set that 25 percent of all MDTA participants were to be young people. Until CETA was enacted in late 1973, the major manpower programs dealing with youth were:

- Youth Opportunity Centers, set up in 1965 and run by the U.S. Employment Service, designed to provide work orientation and placement. These were abolished after several years' experimentation.
- Neighborhood Youth Corps, begun in 1964 under the Economic Opportunity Act, designed to provide a "constructive work experience" for disadvantaged youth. NYC was not intended as a private sector program, although some of the job slots during the late 1960's were in business and industry.
- Job Corps, started in 1965 to provide job training at residential centers. The Job Corps proved relatively successful and was continued under CETA. The Carter administration in 1977 persuaded Congress to double the size of the Job Corps. Participation by the private sector varies, but often includes provision of equipment and supervisors. In addition, many Job Corps centers are operated under contract with the Labor Department by large corporations such as RCA.

What follows is a description and discussion of each type of federal private sector effort.

A. Employment and Training (Manpower) Programs (Target Group: Low-Income Persons Only)

Analysis of the few evaluations from this period that concentrate on private sector involvement reveals a few standout programs. Probably the best known is the Training and Technology (TAT) project, begun in 1968 as an experimental program by the Labor Department and the Oak Ridge (Tenn.) Associated Universities. Using the resources of private industry, TAT succeeded both in meeting employers' hiring needs and creating a mechanism for training low-skill workers for high-pay, high-skill jobs. Some 67 percent of all enrollees were youth aged 22 and under.

TAT's success rate is demonstrable. A 1973 DOL evaluation found that more than 90 percent of the first 2,000 TAT graduates were placed in industrial jobs. Dropout rates averaged just 18 percent from 1968 to 1972. Cost per placement averaged about $4,500, compared with $4,900 for other MDTA training. 3/

TAT now is an ongoing program supported with local funds and assistance by DOL and the Department of Energy. However, other sources have "bought into" the program, including local public schools, Work Incentive Program (WIN) operators, Standard Oil of Indiana and the Tennessee Department of Corrections.

Why has TAT been so successful? According to the Labor Department, "the explanation encompasses a number of factors, beginning with the industrial setting and the related ability of the staff to combine the best elements of institutional and on-the-job training." DOL also points out that:

- instructors are craftsmen with current industrial experience;
- the recruitment/selection process puts "consistent emphasis" on job development and placement;
- shop training is "rigorous, relatively lengthy and at the same time, flexible and individualized";
- careful attention is given academic instruction, including remedial training;
- program staff members have close relationships with the congractor/employers;

- comprehensive support services are provided, with counselors monitoring trainees' progress;
- in-depth union and community support have been mobilized; and
- strong management and professional program development services free the training staff to concentrate on training. 4/

Employment and training expert Anita Vogel adds:

> The program established credibility by initial stringent admission criteria for enrollees--high school diploma plus two years of job experience or some post secondary vocational training. With experience in selection and training, TAT has gradually been able to admit, train and place greater proportions of disadvantaged, under-educated minority members without work histories. 5/

Regis Walther says TAT's selection criteria "assures high motivation and a high probability of placement in a job with a very high rate of pay." 5A/

Job Corps (Target Group: Low-Income Youth 16-24)

The Job Corps has had somewhat less success. Since it is a multi-site effort, an involvement by the private sector varies from one site to the next, the impact of business and industry on the program is almost impossible to assess. To our knowledge, no studies have been conducted on this topic.

According to Vogel, however, the private sector has been no more successful than anyone else in operating residential centers. She says:

> Initially it was anticipated that private corporations would be superior as administrators and educators, particularly in the very large urban centers. In practice there has been no consistently superior type of contractor. The quality of administration and staff morale at particular Job Corps Centers at a given time, rather than public or private auspices, has been crucial to the success of centers. 6/

Adds Sar Levitan: "The original blithe confidence of Job Corps officialdom and corporate directors that free enterprise could fashion the Job Corps into a "machine for transforming people" faded before the difficulty of the task". 7/

Vocational Exploration Program (VEP) (Target Group: Dropout-Prone Low-Income Youth)

Another early manpower program which actively sought participation from the private sector was the Vocational Exploration Program (VEP), which continues today under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act. In 1974, the Center for Urban Studies at St. Louis University published an evaluation of 20 VEP sites conducted over a two-year period. [8/]

VEP originally was a Neighborhood Youth Corps effort designed to place youth in work/training positions in the private sector and pay a portion of their wages. The percentage of wages paid by NYC compensated the private sector employers only for such costs as increased supervision and training. Dropout-prone youth were placed in the private sector during a summer and subsequent school year and received intensive counseling, orientation to the world of work, career exploration, on the job training and work experience.

In encouraging participation of employers, VEP performed best when there was "personalized and individual contact," said the researchers. Major problems included high local unemployment, lack of summer jobs in July when the program began, employer unfamiliarity with VEP and reduction of the employer subsidy during the second year from two-thirds to one-half.

The researchers found several positive results of the VEP program however. The school dropout rate was below 10 percent, 62 percent of the enrollees improved their grade point averages, school attendance improved slightly and there was noticeable improvement in discipline. In addition, 69 percent of the second year VEP completers were kept on full-time by their employers and another 6.3 percent found other private sector jobs.

What was the secret? The researchers noted that more second year participants were high school seniors and fewer were considered "probable dropouts," so there is evidence of "creaming." But there also were problems. Counselors sometimes developed jobs without regard to future potential of enrollees; program quality varied greatly from site to site; and the vocational exploration component was not widely implemented.

Today, VEP is operated by the Labor Department through contracts with the National Alliance of Businessmen (now National Alliance of Business) and

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the AFL-CIO's Human Resource Development Institute. No longer are wage subsidies available, however.

National Alliance of Business JOBS Program (Target Group: Low Income Youth)

Despite its longevity and popularity with the Labor Department, the National Alliance of Business JOBS program has not proven to be overwhelmingly successful. The basic premise sounds like a good one: concentrate on disadvantaged youngsters; "hire now, train later"; provide needed support services; and subsidize with federal funds the marginal costs of hiring and training. But according to a 1970 study of 10 NAB/JOBS programs, there was little impact upon the statistical numbers of the unemployed. 9/

Most of the jobs, said the researchers, were low-level dead-end positions with little correlation to the skills shortages reported by industries. Support services often were lacking and few linkages were forged with other manpower programs, educational systems and health or social welfare organizations.

Vogel adds that the actual number of placements during the first two years of the JOBS effort was never pinpointed, then concludes: "There is general agreement that the program collapsed under the economic recession of 1970. The disadvantaged, being among the last hired, were the first fired." 10/

On the other hand, retention rates were greatly improved where companies provided good job coaching and supervisory and human relations training. Most trainees said the program helped them meet daily living expenses and improved their family lives. Employers were sensitized to the needs of disadvantaged youth, a group many had never worked with before. 11/

Operation Young Adults (Target Group: Low Income Dropouts or Dropout Prone Youth)

Beyond these few evaluations, there is little research to document the success or failure of private sector youth programs in pre-CETA days. One exception is a 1972 report on Operation Young Adults, a project run by Rochester (N.Y.) Jobs, Inc. 12/ Designed to experiment with several types of work education programs, Operation Young Adults enrolled 350 young people of both sexes aged 14 through 20, who either had dropped out of school or were dropout prone. The program followed a half-time school/half-time work pattern and used nontraditional educational approaches and special counseling.

Participants were enrolled in one of three components: a special in-school program combined with a sheltered workshop; a special industrial work/study program designed to build good work attitudes; and a half-school/half-work program in which student teams of 20 worked renovating houses. The program cost $1.7 million over two years. Evaluators found that:

- during a period of high unemployment, employers were reluctant to hire youth in the 16-20 age bracket; those under 16 were "virtually impossible" to place;
- success in renovating homes depends largely on how many homes are available at a low price; and
- business, labor, religious and social groups cooperated well together, probably because of a history of good local relationships.

CETA Programs

If evaluations of pre-CETA youth programs are scarce, evaluations since CETA was enacted are almost nonexistent. As mentioned in the previous chapter, recession, the doubling of public service employment and the newness of the CETA program are responsible for most of this gap. But the CETA law itself also has prevented funding of programs which might yield interesting data. CETA prime sponsors are prohibited from subsidizing any private sector costs other than above-normal training expenditures. This prevents the use of wage subsidies, outright training subsidies and other innovative approaches which might prove very attractive to private employers.

The new Private Sector Initiative Program (PSIP) provides an opportunity to try new employment and training experiments. Although wage subsidies still are prohibited, the Private Industry Councils established under PSIP have a chance to create incentives and support services that may herald a new era in private sector involvement in CETA.

Another deterrent to increased private sector involvement is ever-increasing CETA paperwork. [13/] Dozens of forms must be filled out and employers are required to keep their books open for audit three years after participation in a CETA program, further dampening their interest. Such provisions may be necessary to insure honesty, but do little to encourage business and industry participation.

Finally, CETA is a much more decentralized, less categorical program. As a result it is much more difficult (a) to design evaluation studies which reflect local diversity and (b) to implement national evaluations due to possible local sensitivity to assessment from outside the community.

Supported Work (Target Group: Low Income Dropouts, Welfare Mothers, Ex-Drug Abusers, Ex-Offenders, Recovering Alcoholics and Former Mental Patients)

One recent ambitious federal manpower effort with some private sector involvement is the National Supported Work Demonstration, begun in March 1975. The program has several unique aspects, not the least of which is its funding and administrative set-up. Primary funding comes from the Department of Labor and the Ford Foundation, but other federal agencies also have made conttibutions. These include the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, HEW's Office of Planning and Evaluation, the National Institute on Drug Abuse, the Department of Housing and Urban Development and the Economic Development Administration.

The program itself is administered through an independent quasi-government nonprofit organization, the Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation.

The Supported Work Demonstration is targeted at some of the nation's hardest-to-employ groups: out-of-school youth, welfare mothers, former drug addicts, ex-offenders, recovering alcoholics and former mental patients. It is a transitional program; participants leave at the end of a fixed period of time whether they have obtained a regular job or not. While in the program, participants earn entry-level wages and have the chance to earn more with good performance and attendance. The gradual accumulation of job skills and work habits is a key to the success of Supported Work.

Each of the 13 Supported Work sites makes its own arrangements for training of which some have been contracted to the private sector.

A full evaluation of the program is due to be published soon. A review of the program's first year, however, shows that of 807 original participants, 17 percent had left for a job, 2 percent had returned to school, 11 percent had been fired or resigned for "neutral" reasons and 44 percent were fired or resigned for "negative" reasons. A total of 26 percent of participants were still in the program. Significantly, youth survived the difficult first month of the program in greater percentages than any other group. 14/

School-Based Programs

As observed earlier, evaluations of private sector youth programs sponsored by educational agencies are not abundant, especially in the areas of career and vocational education. There are, however, a few exceptions.

Experience-Based Career Education (Target Group: Dropout Prone Low Income Youth)

Related to career education (though not identical to it, despite the program's name) is Experience-Based Career Education (EBCE). The National Institute of Education has funded a series of evaluations to test EBCE's goal of providing dropout prone youth with an "alternative" classroom learning environment coupled with career exploration in the private sector.

An EBCE program in Oregon is typical: during the school year 29 students completed eight employer site explorations, spent 108 days in learning experiences on three employer sites, were tutored in two skills, and participated in many hours of independent study, seminars, counseling and enrichment activities. 15/

The program produced several measurable results in an evaluation completed in late 1973 by the Northwest Regional Educational Lab in Portland. Participants showed little improvement in basic skills and self-concepts, but showed gains in a number of "survival" skills. Seniors reached a "high level" of career maturity. Employers said students improved their work performance, adherence to work schedules, acceptance of responsibility, interest in and enthusiasm for work, judgment, ability to work with others, and ability to learn through work experiences. 16/

The success of EBCE led to its certification in 1975 as a proven demonstration project by the federal government's Joint Dissemination Review Panel. EBCE is the only school-to-work project ever approved by the panel.

Cooperative Education (Target Group: Generally Students of All Income Backgrounds, Either at Secondary or Postsecondary Level)

The field of cooperative education has produced several useful evaluations. The term "cooperative education" has been much abused in recent years, used to describe nearly any program in which schools and employers participate. Generally, however, cooperative education is defined as a state-certified program in which students spend part of their day in the classroom and the rest in a work setting related to their studies.

At the postsecondary level, cooperative education appears to have strong acceptance among employers. A 1974 Detroit Institute of Technology study revealed that 76 percent of employers rated their cooperative education experiences as good or excellent. 17/ Co-op students got high ratings by employers for work performance and 62 percent of co-op graduates got job offers. The evaluation also showed that co-op students earned more and faster promotions.

Evaluations at the secondary level tend to confirm the popularity of cooperative education. A 1973 Office of Education study of 50 work education programs concluded that "specific occupational training programs (cooperative education programs for the most part) appear to be generating the most enthusiasm among students, employers, and school officials because they are meeting the expressed needs and objectives of all three groups." 18/

Co-op programs, said the study, are more likely than any other kind of in-school program to: provide students with job-related school instruction; have a followup program for graduates; have an advisory committee; provide job placement services; have a high rate of job-related placements; provide students with jobs that offer formal on-the-job training; help students in deciding on an occupation; provide students with jobs that fit into their career plans; provide students with jobs with high levels of responsibility; and provide students with inherently satisfying jobs. 19/

On the other hand, co-op programs were found to discriminate against students on the basis of attitude; be less effective in reducing student absenteeism; and interfere with students' other activities such as schoolwork and sports. 20/

Another study revealed the difficulty in placing students during economic downturns and developing jobs for handicapped students. 21/ The picture of cooperative education presented by most research studies, however, is encouraging. A summary from a 1976 Office of Education evaluation is typical: "The picture overall is a very positive one. Students apparently are pleased with the program, employers rate the students' skills generally high, and most important, students are learning the skills taught in the...program." 22/

Postsecondary co-op programs also earned high marks in a 1978 national study conducted by Applied Management Sciences. Researchers studied 80 two- and four-year schools first-hand and surveyed 32 others by mail. They found that more co-op students than nonparticipants said their job skills improved as they progressed through college. Co-op, said the AMS report, "contributes to after-graduation employment, to a more direct relationship between college major and full-time after-graduation employment and a more direct relationship between current job and career plans." Money earned in co-op programs was a powerful incentive for students to participate, the study also found.

The study found co-op programs to be cost effective, with the only additional costs to employers going for startup and evaluation expenses. A total of 96 percent of the employers surveyed said they would continue to participate in their local co-op programs. Employers said they reaped substantial benefits in terms of student productivity, community relations and identification and recruitment of future full-time employees.

The most cost-effective programs, said the study, were in professional areas such as business and engineering; programs linked with the liberal arts were less cost-effective. Benefits to students were most pronounced in baccalaureate degree programs; less so in associate degree programs. 23/

Career Intern Program (CIP) (Target Group: Low Income Dropout Prone Youth)

The Career Intern Program also has earned high marks. Designed and developed by the Philadelphia-based Opportunities Industrialization Centers of

America, the CIP effort was financed by the National Institute of Education. The idea was to create a special urban high school for about 250 students a year who were "turned off" by regular academic programs. Successful completion of the special program was required with a regular high school diploma.

Actually a hybrid form of cooperative education, the Philadelphia CIP program also included a series of hands-on work experiences in private industry for each participant during the second semester. Work experiences were tied to participants' career goals and each "intern" was required to have two hands-on experiences of one week each. Evaluations were performed by the work supervisor and the CIP job developer. One important aspect was that jobs were in the "primary" labor market, high-pay high-status occupations to which most interns had never had access.

Results of the program were impressive. By December 1975, 67 percent of the CIP students but only 13 percent of a control group had graduated or were attending school. About 44 percent of the CIP interns had received high school diplomas and 23 percent were still attending class. Only 7 percent of the control students had diplomas and only 6 percent were in school. In addition, there were indications of improvement in reading and mathematics achievement.

Seventy-seven graduates were followed up after having been out of CIP from six months to a year. A total of 71 percent of the interns were employed or in postsecondary education, compared to only 39 percent of the controls. However, not a single one of the control group had enrolled in college or trade school, in contrast to 29 percent of the male interns. 24/

Particularly impressive is the research design: three separate groups of applicants, with participants and nonparticipants, were chosen at random from the applicant pool. Say the researchers:

> The design contributes to believability in two ways. First, the replication of findings across three separate groups suggests that whatever is happening, is not a one-time, one group event. Second, the true experimental and control groups permit strong inference that whatever is happening is due to the internship experience, rather than to changes which would probably have occurred without OIC." 25/

70001 Ltd. (Target Group: School Dropouts and Young Public Assistance Recipients)

Another program which deserves mention is 70001 Ltd., a nonprofit organization founded by the Thom McAn Shoe Company. The program is aimed at high school dropouts and is a careful mix of special classroom work and related job experience. A unique aspect of 70001 is its "franchise" concept. Local CETA or educational agencies interested in starting a 70001 program contact with the organization's national headquarters in Newark, Delaware. 70001 then subcontracts with the sponsoring/operating agency to franchise the use of the 70001 Ltd. name, instructional materials, training services, youth organization activities and so on.

The role of the national organization, then, is to insure that subcontractors meet quality control standards. Currently, there are 16 programs in 9 states. However, a contract signed in 1978 with the Labor Department will expand the number of franchised programs to 50 and increase membership to 12,500 during the next four years. The Distributive Education Clubs of America are responsible for promoting the organization.

Employers must agree in writing to see that enrollees receive "special concern" and to evaluate enrollees' work. Although all participants are high school dropouts and 90 percent are on some kind of public assistance at enrollment time, 71 percent are still working after a year or more. In 1976, the organization did a followup study of program graduates in five states. Of 227 graduates, 75 percent were employed or had gone back to school; 91 percent of those working were in full-time jobs; average full-time wages amounted to $3.13 per hour; only 15 percent were jobless; 30 percent were involved in some sort of higher education; and 63 percent of those working were in occupations in the fields of retailing and distribution.

Seventy percent of the graduates rated the 70001 program as "excellent" or "very good," while 73 percent said the program was "excellent" or "very good" in helping them learn to work with others. 26/ Evaluations to be performed in conjunction with the DOL-sponsored expansion should reveal just how successful the 70001 concept can be.

Vocational Education (Target Group: Generally Youth From All Income Backgrounds)

As far as vocational education is concerned, evaluations are relatively common, but little has been done to document the impact of private sector involvement. However, the quality of vocational education evaluations has been uneven. As Henry David, director of NIE's national vocational education study, noted: "There is not a large number of studies conducted with much vigor. There are no studies conducted with a control group. But we shall try to make sense of what there is". 27/

Summary

The data on private sector involvement in youth transition programs are from such an uneven body of literature that comparisons are very difficult to make. The most readily available figures are job placement rates. But in and of themselves, placement rates are influenced too much by economic conditions and client characteristics to be useful in comparing program effectiveness. Except for carefully controlled experiments such as the Career Intern Program, control groups have not been used, so that comparisons within programs also are not possible.

Literally dozens of program descriptions and case studies are available which claim achievements of one kind or another (again, usually in terms of job placements) but offer little information on the reasons for success.

There is little agreement in nearly all the available research on how program effects can be weighed. Should one measure long-term or short-term success? Is it too expensive to use a control group? Who is to be the main program beneficiary, the student or the employer? How can the effects of economics, attitudes, program design and test instruments be isolated and taken into account? Should a pre-test and post-test be used? These and other questions bedevil attempts to evaluate programs and compare their results with one another. It may even prove impossible to measure the precise effects of complex social experiments such as the ones described here, even if time and budgetary limitations are not factors. Still, several conclusions can be drawn from the available data, and these will be described next.

In comparing the results of these and related programs, it is important to bear in mind that "youth" is not a homogenous category. As Regis Walther has noted, "Strategies which work for one category of youth will not necessarily work for another. It seems obvious that the needs of the college-bound category are different from the needs of the school dropouts. Even within major categories there can be significant differences in need which should be recongized." 27a/

Walther suggests three main categories of disadvantaged youth; disadvantaged high school graduates; rebels, and low self-esteem types.

Perhaps the most direct attempt to assess which approaches work best with different groups of youth is Garth Mangum and John Walsh's "Employment and Training Programs for Youth: What Works Best for Whom?" (q.v.).

Intorduction to the Matrix Presented on the Following Three Pages

The matrix chart on the following three pages presents a thumbnail sketch of 13 school-to-work programs, some still in operation, others long ago completed. Included is the NAB/JOBS program, six employment and training programs (TAT, Job Corps, Operation Young Adults, CETA OJT, Supported Work), five school-based programs (EBCE, cooperative education, Career Intern Program, vocational education, career education) and the privately operated 70001 network of franchises.

The matrix outlines program goals, delivery mechanisms, evaluation methods, signs of program success and lessons for replication. Because so much of the research still has not been completed, YEDPA programs are not included in the matrix.

Summary of Youth Transition to Work Programs Involving the Private Sector

Program	Program Goal	Delivery Mechanism	Evaluation Method	Program Success?	Lessons for Replication
TAT (MDTA)	placement of hard-to-employ in high skill jobs	combination, OJT, classroom, remedial skills training using industry resources	measured placement and dropout rates and cost per placement a/	90% of first 2000 enrollees placed. 18% dropout rate. C.P.P. $400 less than average	1. use experienced workmen as instructors 2. deliver comprehensive support services 3. insure intensive training 4. promote good communications 5. mobilize union and community support 6. strong management
Job Corps (CETA)	provide intensive job training & placement to low-income youth through residential facilities	classroom and hands-on training in residential centers	No known evaluations comparing success of centers run by private sector with those run by public agencies. b/		
VEP (CETA)	summer career exploration and counseling opportunities for low-income youth	work exploration activities w/private employers plus individual counseling	no control group; measured improvements in school work, attendance and job placement c/	measurable improvements in dropout rates, grade averages, attendance, discipline. 75% placement rate.	1. level of employer subsidy influences participation 2. personal approach best in recruiting employers 3. local unemployment rate affects job openings 4. impact influenced by eligibility requi ments; "creaming" is a potential problem
NAB/Jobs (private)	recruit businesses to voluntarily open summer jobs to low-income youth	voluntary cooperation by private sector. No subsidies available	measured number of jobs created & impact on total youth jobless rate d/	total jobs created unknown; hundreds of thousands of jobs created, but little impact on jobless statistics	1. number of jobs created tied closely to unemployment situation 2. good job coaching and supervision had positive impact on program 3. employers gain experience working with disadvantaged
Operation Young Adults (MDTA)	to train dropouts aged 14-20 for construction jobs	components included sheltered workshop work/study; home rehab; counseling	no control group. Evaluation based on program follow-up e/	some success in training those 17-20; those younger impossible to place. Rehab. program needed more houses	1. employers reluctant to hire 16-20 yea olds when unemployment is high 2. rehab. program depends on supply of cheap houses 3. good cooperation among business, labo other groups, if there is good history of it

Program	Program Goal	Delivery Mechanism	Evaluation Method	Program Success?	Lessons for Replication
CETA OJT (CETA)	train low income people for jobs by subsidizing employer training costs	reimbursements to employers of amounts up to 50% of wages and fringes	no recent evaluations; only annual DOL figures available f/	38.9% placed in jobs, FY 76 (Manpower Report of President, 1978)	Absence of evaluations makes lessons difficult to generalize.
Supported Work (CETA)	training and placement of very hard-to-employ through intensive OJT & remedial work	13 test sites; make own arrangements for training; some in private sector	control group. Evaluation measured post-program results g/	95% placement; gains in earnings posted	Project still under evaluation.
Experience-Based Career Education (NIE)	provide dropout-prone youth w/"alternative" high school program combined w/work experience	separate high school program combined w/ rotating work experiences w/private sector	tested variety of self-concept and skills measures: writing, career knowledge, responsibility, etc. a/	few gains in basic skills or self-concepts measurable improvements in work habits, "survival" skills, career maturity	1. EBCE is a feasible alternative for dropout-prone youth 2. major gains possible in career development 3. should not expect major turnarounds in basic skills, self-concepts
Cooperative Education (OE)	introduce & prepare young people in all-income brackets for world of work	high school & college students combine classroom study w/related work experience	no controls; measured program components, not attitudes of participants; no placement follow-up b/	high placement rates; program succeeded in providing formal OJT; helping students decide on careers; get jobs	1. very popular among students and employers alike 2. provides good job-related opportuniti 3. may cut into students' after-hours activities
Career Intern Program (NIE)	create a special urban high school for dropout-prone students; combined w/work experience	special high school program created by Opportunities Industrialization Centers; work experience part-time in private sector	control groups & follow-up survey used. Focus on employment-related outcomes c/	more participants than controls: got jobs, returned for more schooling or graduated. Gains in reading & math	1. good evaluation design proved that CI is a viable program for urban minori youths 2. strongest potential is in number of youth who go on to college
70001 Ltd. (private)	to provide dropouts w/ work & training in a supportive atmosphere	70001 "franchised" to local agencies who make training arrangements. Local 70001 clubs offer support	d/ no control group; emphasis on outcomes & satisfaction w/program	[illegible] working after one year; 30% involved in higher ed; 70% rate program excellent or very good	1. franchising allows centralized control over program standards 2. local "clubs" provide needed peer support
Vocational Education (OE)	to equip high school & postsecondary students w/saleable skills	simulated work environments within the public school system	To our knowledge, no evaluation has ever dealt with private sector involvement in vocational education.		

Program	Program Goal	Delivery Mechanism	Evaluation Method	Program Success?	Lessons for Replication
Career Education (OE)	to integrate career development into public school curriculums	involvement by public schools w/employers & community organizations & career exploration activities	To our knowledge, no evaluation has ever dealt specifically with private sector involvement in career education.		

CODE TO EVALUATIONS CITED IN MATRIX CHARTS

DOL Programs

a/ Davies, Mary F., A Model for Training the Disadvantaged: TAT at Oak Ridge, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, 1973.

b/ See Levitan, Sar, The Job Corps: A Social Experiment that Works, John Hopkins University Press, 1975.

c/ Sprengel, Donald P., et al., Youth Training in the Private Sector, A Model for Implementation, Center for Urban Programs, St. Louis University, 1974.

d/ Greenleigh Associates, Inc., The Job Opportunities in the Business Sector Program, Greenleigh Associates, Inc., 1970.

e/ Rochester Jobs, Inc., Final Report: Operation Young Adults, Rochester N.Y., Rochester Jobs, Inc., 1972.

f/ U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Report of the President, 1978.

g/ Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation, Summary of the First Annual Report on the National Supported Work Demonstration, Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation, 1976.

School-Based Programs

a/ Herron, Marshall, et al., Employer-Based Career Education: FY 1973 Evaluation Report, Northwest Regional Laboratory, 1973.

b/ Frankel, Stephen M., Executive Summary: An Assessment of School-Supervised Work-Education Programs, Systems Development Corporation, 1973.

c/ The National Institute of Education, The Career Intern Program: An Experiment in Career Education That Worked, 1977.

d/ National Manpower Institute, The Youth Transition to Work: Synthesis, Research and Experimentation Strategy, Volume I, 1978.

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III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS DERIVED FROM POLICY ISSUES OF CRITICAL CONCERN

A. What forms of collaboration among employment, training, private sector employers, educational (including colleges and universities), and rehabilitative institutions (including community based organizations) are the most effective and the most successful in facilitating the school-to-work transition sequence? Specifically, what forms of collaboration and what structural arrangements best serve the young people in terms of placing them in private sector, unsubsidized jobs after program completion?

The concept of collaboration among various community, private and government sectors is a fairly recent phenomenon in the history of youth transition to work programs. Collaboration represents both a growing sophistication about the causes and cures of high rates of youth unemployment and a desire by public administrators to make the most efficient use of tax dollars.

We have come a long way in our thinking about youth unemployment since the mid 1960's when the general concensus was that if simply enough jobs were provided, the nation's low-income youth would be integrated back into the mainstream of society. Over the last decade, however, it has become clear that a shortage of jobs is a major problem, but not the only one. Thus, other sectors of the community have gradually been drawn into job training and related efforts: schools to provide remedial academic skills; social service agencies to provide counseling, outreach, health care and transportation; employers to provide work experience opportunities, as well as jobs; labor unions to expand apprenticeship opportunities.

Underlying this movement is the assumption that a comprehensive array of services will better serve the transition needs of youth. However, empirical evidence to document this assumption or to spell out the best ways to coordinate services is sorely lacking. Similarly, it is a common sense assumption that coordination of services will help stretch federal dollars and increase the impact of programs by reducing overlap and duplication. Again, however, there is almost no research to back up what has become a major new feature of federal policy.

This growing interest in collaboration to improve transition services for youth can be traced, in part, to President Gerald Ford's August 1974 speech at

Ohio State University, in which he called for a "new partnership" between educators and business people. Shortly thereafter, Ford created an Interagency Task Force composed of representatives of the departments of Labor, HEW and Commerce. Efforts of this task force led to development of several pilot initiatives that crossed traditional boundaries between agencies, such as the Work-Education Consortium Project and the National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee.

The Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act and the Career Education Incentive Act, both enacted in 1977, built upon these experiments to encourage--and in some cases mandate--further collaboration.

Inflation, and the resulting desire of political administrations to hold down federal spending, has helped maintain interest in the concept of collaboration. The small amount of research that exists on the effectiveness of collaboration in youth transition efforts serves mostly to document just how difficult the process can be.

Congress enacted YEDPA both as a jobs program and as a vehicle for fostering new collaborative relationships. Initial research shows that such relationships need more time to flower and mature. Wurtzburg says, "The first interim report of YEDPA at the local level demonstrated that prime sponsors are taking the initiative; but that private sector interests, for the most part, are not responding. There has been no dramatic change since that time. Neither does there seem to be much promise for any breakthrough, similar to the breakthrough with LEAs (local education agencies) that now seems possible." 30/

Despite his gloomy assessment, Wurzburg says there is "scattered evidence" of some "genuine contact"--no quantum leaps, "but it could presage the kind of modest, undramatic breakthrough that will mark change on this front." 31/

Community-based organizations (CBOs), however, are much more involved in YEDPA programs, primarily because the language of the law gives CBOs "special consideration" in the provision of services. Whether CBOs are more effective than other service deliverers is a "moot point," according to Wurzburg. CBOs, he says, are a very diverse group and generalizations are not easy to make. Preliminary evidence, however, suggests that CBOs are no more cost-effective, able to reach target groups or provide better services than other agencies. Again, generalizations should be avoided, Wurzburg warns. [32/]

Unions, says Wurzburg, were only "peripherally involved" with YEDPA's early phases, despite some "notable exceptions." Labor unions, he says, usually "make themselves heard only when their interests seem to be threatened." [33/]

Employers, schools and CETA prime sponsors all play collaborative roles in the Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects. MDRC has completed two studies of YIEPP so far and has found numerous barriers to collaboration that include stringent eligibility and research requirements, a mismatch in funding cycles between schools and prime sponsors, business hours that would not accommodate part-time or school-year work experiences, difficulties in matching jobs to individual interests and aspirations, finding worksites close to schools or participants' homes, and heavy reporting burdens. [34/]

YIEPP is a complex program implemented quickly under heavy pressure from the Department of Labor, so barriers to collaboration may well be programmatic rather than inherent. Unfortunately, YIEPP is being phased out in fiscal year 1980, so a long-term test of its collaborative impact will not be possible.

The MDRC evaluation found that agencies mostly did what they already knew how to do when forming collaborative alliances under YIEPP. Schools provided initial publicity and academic instruction; prime sponsors, Job Service offices and schools advised interested youths about the program; and community based organizations were used to recruit and enroll high school dropouts. Employers provided jobs and training opportunities. [35/]

Another vehicle that has been instrumental in promoting greater collaboration is the work-education council. Although known by a variety of names, these councils, most organized in the past few years, generally concentrate on bringing together youth-oriented segments of the community in a neutral atmosphere that promotes discussion and cooperation. The best known of these councils probably are those which were begun or expanded with funds under the Work-Education Consortium Project, begun in 1975 through the joint effort of the departments of Labor, HEW and Commerce. Together, these 32 councils have helped create a national network of collaborative efforts, each designed to fit local needs. The National Manpower Institute has acted as intermediary for the councils and managed the grant money. Councils serve areas of the country as diverse as Bethel, Maine and Detroit, Michigan. The Industry-Education Council of California is a statewide network.

Whether these councils have been successful in creating permanent new collaborative arrangements is still unclear. The National Institute of Education has funded a two-year study by Abt Associates of Cambridge, Massachusetts to assess the impact of the councils. At this point, the study has not been completed. But preliminary evidence shows that the "getting togerher" of diverse community groups is the most notable feature of the councils. [36] However, Abt researchers have not documented any measurable impact councils have made in any community. Study director Audrey Prager said it is difficult to assess the councils because so few of them have any measurable goals. [37]

Other kinds of councils also exist in great profusion, including career education advisory councils, vocational education advisory councils, CETA youth councils and others. To date, little significant research has been done to assess their effectiveness, although Ray Rist has found that a few councils created under YEDPA have helped improve program quality. [37A]

The federal government also has tried legislative mandates to foster more cooperation among related employment and training agencies. The Vocational Education Amendments of 1976 and the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act amendments of 1978 included provisions designed to improve collaboration. These included such measures as broadening the representation of advisory councils and requiring mutual sign-off on program planning documents.

The most significant collaborative mandate, however, is the 22 percent earmark of Youth Employment and Training Program (YEDPA) funds for in-school youth programs to be operated under joint contract between prime sponsors and schools. The setaside has been a powerful lure, since hundreds of millions of dollars are involved. According to the National Council on Employment Policy, "The impact of the 22 percent setaside cannot be overstated." [38] Whether the collaborative arrangements developed under the setaside would continue without the mandate is unknown.

Collaboration with the private sector is being encouraged through two other recently developed mechanisms: Private Industry Councils (created by the 1978 CETA amendments) and the provision of custom-training by vocational schools and community colleges.

Over 450 Private Industry Councils have been formed so far, each made up of a majority of business and industry representatives. They have the responsibility of encouraging more private sector participation in CETA and helping job training programs match more closely the actual manpower needs of business and industry. Forging new school-to-work linkages is also listed in the CETA law among the PICs' mandates.

It is still too early to tell whether the PICs will be able to create a truly collaborative atmosphere for local CETA planning. Preliminary evidence suggests that most PICs are acting in an advisory capacity; few are actually operating programs. 39/ Yet business people apparently are responding well to the call for increased private sector involvement and that enthusiasm has not been lost on members of Congress who were initially skeptical about the Private Sector Initiative Program. 40/

Summary

Collaboration among educators, prime sponsors, employers, labor unions, community organizations and government is a relatively new but growing phenomenon. The federal government, increasingly sophisticated about the causes of youth unemployment and desiring to stretch limited resources, is encouraging more such collaborative efforts through incentives, mandates and such experiments as PICs and work-education councils. Because most of these initiatives are relatively recent, little data exist on their impact. There are indications, however, that new relationships are being created among formerly disparate groups.

The degree to which collaboration is responsible for gains in youth employment is moot at this point, simply because the available evidence is inadequate. Results of the Abt Associates study of work-education councils, plus further research on the YETP setaside and the evolving Private Industry Councils will shed more light on the subject.

What do we not know about the wffectiveness of collaboration?

As mentioned, the concept of collaboration has not had time to take firm root. Ultimately, however, collaboration may prove to be very difficult to measure. The question of "end results" immediately presents itself. The goal of a work-education council, for example, may be simply to bring together segments of the community which previously worked in isolation. There may be no conscious attempt to directly affect local youth employment rates. Researchers must take into consideration these somewhat nebulous but still worthwhile goals in evaluating the effectiveness of some forms of collaborative efforts. The effects of PICs and YETP setasides will be easier to measure.

B. What do we know about the relative effect and value of private sector vs. public sector programmatic experience in terms of the skills acquired, later (after program) job placement, career and educational success and overall (long-term) employability? To what extent does what type of programmatic experience change or alter the impact as a result of the age of the participant?

The federal government's renewed interest in expanding private sector involvement in work preparation programs is based largely on projections that the vast majority of new jobs they expect to be created during the next decade or so will be in private business and industry. Thus, employment opportunities for the disadvantaged in the private sector are encouraged because that is where most of the jobs are. But is there any advantage to youth of obtaining work experience or training in the private, as opposed to the public, sector? The literature simply does not say. To our knowledge, there exists not a single evaluation that addresses this topic. Nonetheless, more knowledge about the relative benefits of public vs. private sector work experiences would be quite helpful in formulating federal youth employment policies.

The Labor Department has recognized the knowledge gaps in this area and in the summer of 1979 launched a $7 million project to compare the impact of public and private sector employment on low-income youth. Four cities and a group of rural Minnesota counties were selected for the project, which will employ about 320 youths at each site in full-time subsidized jobs. The Center for Urban Studies at St. Louis University has developed guidelines being used by all the project sites to aid comparability. Results of the "Public vs. Private Sector Jobs Demonstration Project" should be available some time in 1980.

This project represents virtually the only attempt ever made to specifically compare public and private sector jobs in terms of skills obtained and future labor market success. Previous research offers very few clues as to the possible outcome of this project. Herbert Parnes, in documenting that occupational information and work experience have a positive impact on the later success of youth (especially whites), did not compare work experiences in the public and private sector. In examining the data from his national longitudinal study of young men, Parnes found that young whites got better jobs and higher pay as they obtained more work experience and began to stay with a single employer for longer periods of time. Work experience and job tenure had little impact on later career success for black youths, however, Parnes discovered. The wages of black youth increased at a much smaller rate than those for whites. [41]

In the realm of federal youth programs, comparisons between public and private sector job advantages are made impossible by the fact that most programs are designed to create either public or private sector work opportunities, but rarely both. Under the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act, for example, only the Entitlement program authorizes a mixture of public and private sector work. Unfortunately, no attempt has been made to analyze whether one form of employment has any advantage over another; the purpose of the Entitlement is to encourage low-income youth to complete high school by guaranteeing them jobs. Prime sponsors have been free to mix and match public and private sector job slots.

Intuitively, at least, it would seem that private sector work would benefit the older youth seeking a permanent foothold in the labor market. Not only are there more jobs in the private sector, they often pay more and provide wider opportunities for advancement. The public sector, on the other hand, has generally done more to encourage hiring of minorities and the disadvantaged. Often there are more entry level positions in the public sector and--in government, at least--steps toward advancement are clear-cut. Subsequent research must be awaited before any of these assumptions can be proven or disproven.

In many federal transition to work programs, this acsumption is put into practice. Younger teenagers often are placed in public or nonprofit agencies, where it is hoped they'll learn good work habits and attitudes in an atmosphere less stressful than the private sector, with its dedication to profit and productivity. When, and if, these youngsters become job ready, they then are referred to private employers.

But because the profit motive creates a work environment quite different from that in the public sector, it is reasonable to ask whether youngsters get appropriate experiences in nonprofit organizations.

Regis Walther, for example, argues that the private sector may offer higher quality work experience opportunities. "There may be no 'hard data' on this point," he says, "but there is widespread impression that work sites in the private sector are more likely to require the youth to meet performance standards, and thus provide better training." 41A/

There is a clear dichotomy here. If private employers indeed offer better quality work experiences, but are less tolerant of low productivity and poor work habits, the cards appear to be stacked against the disadvantaged youth who need help the most. The federal government has offered a broad range of incentives to increase the number of private sector work experience sites. The relative success of these are examined in the next section.

Summary

The relative benefits of private vs. public sector work experience is one of the most poorly researched issues in the transition-to-work arena. Although a number of studies have analyzed the benefits to youth of work experience in general, none to our knowledge has examined whether the private or public sector is the best place to get it. A $7 million project begun in mid-1979 to test in several sites the value of public vs. private sector jobs for low-income youth should provide answers to many questions. At this point, however, about all that can be said is that the gradual accumulation of work experience helps young people (white youths in particular) compete in the labor market for better paying, more prestigious jobs.

__What do we not know about the relative benefits to youth of public vs. private sector job experience?__

Because of the paucity of research literature, it is far easier to list what we do not know about public vs. private sector work benefits than what we do know. The question examined in this section summarizes the largest gaps in our knowledge: Paraphrased and somewhat expanded, these include:

*Do young people acquire different kinds of skills in public sector vs. private sector jobs?

Are public or private sector jobs the most beneficial to young people in terms of later career success and earnings?

*Are young people who get their early work experience in the public sector able to get private sector jobs later on?

Do benefits of public vs. private sector jobs vary according to the age of the job-holder?

*Do public or private sector jobs have any differential impact on the likelihood that a job-holder will pursue further education?

*Do minorities or women receive any advantages from public vs. private sector work experiences?

*Are there differences in the unemployment rates of youths with work histories primarily in the public vs. private sector?

As can be readily seen, there is a great deal to be learned in this area.

C. What do we know about the effectiveness of and measurement of various incentives, both monetary and nonmonetary, to increased private sector involvement in youth transition to work efforts?

Incentives offered by the federal government to expand private sector involvement in employment and training programs can be divided into two basic types: those which provide employers with a source of needed job skills; and those which reduce employer costs. In addition, however, some very large companies will participate in employment and training programs solely out of concern for their public image or because of "social conscience." Still, the private sector appears to respond best to incentives which will help them reduce costs or improve the efficiency of their organizations.

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*Ray Rist has found some evidence that private sector jobs benefit older youth most (Rist, Ray, et al., __Strategies for Coordinating Education and Employment Services__, Occasional Paper No. 1, Youthwork National Policy Study, Cornell University, Nov. 1979).

Vogel lists these incentives--discussed in detail below--which the federal government has tried in recent years with varying degrees of success:

- source of needed workers;
- subsidies for costs and training;
- direct wage subsidies;
- reduction of transaction costs for firms participating in OJT; and
- government subsidizing of youth "trainee wages." 42/

Source of Skilled Workers

Employers needed a source of skilled workers when the NAB was organized during the late 1960's, a period of rapid economic expansion. This need declined drastically when the economy took a turn for the worse, however, and NAB's effectiveness declined accordingly. Some programs, like TAT, however, managed to weather the recession by concentrating on training in emerging high technology occupations where skills, rather than manpower, were in short supply.

On the other hand, a 1978 National Association of Manufacturer's survey found that business people would be more inclined to participate in federal job training programs if participants were better qualified and if programs were better coordinated with company needs. 43/

Training Subsidies

Training subsidies, on the other hand, have been a mainstay of federal manpower programs since the days of MDTA. None of the available research, however, isolates the effects of training subsidies from other factors behind an employer's decision to become involved in a job training program.

Subsidies at least have the potential of reducing manpower costs, however, so probably serve their intended purpose to some extent.

But these subsidies often stumble over three problems:

- employers often feel the paperwork burden of federal manpower programs outweighs the benefits of the subsidies;
- unions object to the presence of subsidied employees when regular workers are being laid off; and
- employers view the training subsidies as payment for hiring the disadvantaged, so often provide little or no training.

According to Vogel, "Subsidies of any kind work only when there is solid economic expansion. They do not work if unions object or when other categories of workers are being laid off." 44/ On-the-job-training subsidies accounted for only 8.6% of all CETA spending in 1977. 45/

Direct wage subsidies are not allowed under CETA, but are permitted in certain cases under the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act. Intuitively, direct wage subsidies would seem to be a valuable tool, but research to back up such an assumption is lacking. Subsidies of this kind are rather common in Europe, but it is difficult to apply the results of these experiences to the domestic scene.

Vogel cites an experimental program operated several years ago by the Institute of Public Administration in New York City in which direct wage subsidies were paid to employers who agreed to upgrade the job skills of low-level employees. The program ran into trouble, however, when employers proved reluctant to upgrade workers' job skills, feared they would not be reimbursed for what upgrading they did, failed to upgrade skills because of a lack of in-house capacity and failed to understand the concept of upgrading. The program also proved to be more expensive than either hands-on or classroom training. 46/

Subsidizing Youth "Trainee Wages"

Programs designed to subsidize youth "trainee wages" are very poorly documented and little is known about their effects. As Vogel points out, subsidizing trainee wages has not been permitted except for a brief period in the 1960's. [47/] The Youth Entitlement program allows wage subsidies, the subject of evaluations now under way.

Beyond these five categories are a number of approaches which are being tried but have never been evaluated. Some are completely new ideas, while others are variations on earlier themes. Many are based on the idea of community collaboration. Examples include collaborating with schools to develop curriculums in jobs where there are vacancies in the local labor market, and with government agencies, employers and universities to develop better labor market data.

However, the Department of Labor is giving new attention to trainee subsidies. On March 5, 1979, a $4.4 million DOL contract was signed with Control Data Corporation to train and place 300 Job Corps enrollees during the next three years. The contract money provides for a complete subsidy of training costs and wages for the participants, with Control Data guaranteeing jobs to all successful completers. The Control Data contract is a substantial departure from the usual subsidies and reimbursements offered private sector employers. Subsequent evaluations of the effectiveness of this approach will shed new light on the value of wage and training subsidies as an inducement for expanded private sector involvement in youth jobs programs.

Wage Exemptions and Tax Credits

Two other hiring incentives should be noted: minimum wage exemptions and employment tax credits.

Under the Federal Minimum Wage Act, student learners, apprentices, messengers and full-time students may be paid less than the minimum wage by employers who apply to the Department of Labor for a special waiver. The student learner program permits payment of 75 percent of the minimum wage to vocational education students 16 years of age and older for part-time work related to their training. Full-time students in certain occupations may work after school for up to 20 hours per week at 85 percent of the wage base. Colleges and universities also may employ students under the latter conditions.

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*See the St. Louis University studies on the Vocational Exploration Program.

These waivers are popular among employers. The number of certificates obtained to employ full-time students more than tripled between fiscal years 1974 and 1975, jumping from 7,551 to 26,170. 48/ The Congressional Budget Office notes that most of this increase is attributable to changes made in the law in 1974 to include colleges and additional retail and service establishments, and which made the certificates easier to get. 49/

There are, to our knowledge, no evaluations of the effectiveness of the waivers. This seems unfortunate in light of employers' frequent complaints that the minimum wage is so high it prevents them from hiring young people.

Employment tax credits, on the other hand, have been evaluated but the evidence is contradictory. The federal government's most recent experiences with employment tax credits were under the Work Incentive (WIN) Program tax credit of 1971 and the Tax Reduction and Simplification Act of 1977. The tax credit authorized by the latter act expired in 1978. It allowed employers a credit of 50 percent of the increase in their wage base under the Federal Unemployment Tax Act, above 102 percent of the wage base in the previous year. The FUTA base for a year consists of wages paid up to $4,200 per employee. No one employer could claim more than $100,000 in credits for a single year. There was also a requirement that total wages paid rise by at least 5 percent to make sure the Employment Tax Credit reflected actual increases in employment.

This tax credit was replaced in October 1978 by a Targeted Jobs Tax Credit limited to a specific list of hard-to-employ populations. Under the new program, 50 percent of the first $6,000 in wages of the first year of employment, and 25 percent of the first $6,000 in wages of the second year can be taken as a tax credit by the employer.

To be eligible for the credit, employers must hire individuals who meet one or more of these eligibility requirements: youth aged 18-25 from families with incomes of less than 70 percent of the Bureau of Labor Statistics lower living standard; participants in cooperative education programs; AFDC recipients; SSI (Supplemental Security Income) recipients; welfare recipients of more than 30 days; handicapped individuals in vocational rehabilitation programs; Vietnam-era veterans under age 35 from low-income families; and parolees who are members of low-income families.

Because the original tax credit was not targeted, its effect on youth unemployment is unclear.

On the positive side, John Bishop, a University of Wisconsin economist who helped direct a major study on the potential of wage subsidies, told Congress the untargeted tax credit resulted in "statistically significant increases in employment." According to Bishop, the tax credit induced an 8 percent increase in employment in construction and a 2 or 3 percent increase in retailing. For the industries studied, Bishop said the total increase in employment "seems to be 400,000 plus or minus 400,000"--certainly not a precise conclusion. 50/

Bolstering this view are results of a recent study from the W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research. According to the study, employment tax credits are the best way to induce businesses to hire new people because they reduce the cost of labor and actually curb inflation. Tax credits are especially effective for small businesses, which often have a heavier wage and salary burden than larger firms, the study adds. 51/

But there are indications that the Targeted Jobs Tax Credit is indeed creating jobs for disadvantaged youth. According to Labor Department figures, nearly one-half of the 8,400 people hired during the first six weeks of the program were disadvantaged young people. Another 28 percent were youth enrolled in cooperative education programs. 52/

In a related vein, the allowance of total wage subsidies under YEDPA's Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects offers an interesting test of their merit. While the YIEPP projects have been in operation for only a year, some encouraging signs have emerged. A $25 million project being operated by the CETA prime sponsor in Philadelphia, for example, got commitments from the private sector for 60 percent of the program's 5,400 projected job slots. According to the city's Area Manpower Planning Council, the enthusiasm shown by the private sector for the program stemmed from:

- the proposed use of complete wage subsidies;
- the extensive scope and resources of the project; and
- the use of employer-related and union-related nonprofit organizations for job development.

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An added incentive is that employers are paid directly by the project, thereby eliminating red tape such as contractual arrangements, personnel and payroll paperwork and record keeping. According to the council, "Anything less than a direct incentive to a firm, it was learned, will cause the company's decision-makers to exhibit great reluctance to participate."[53] The Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation currently is studying various aspects of the YIEPP.

So far, MDRC has found that all but three of 17 prime sponsors running the larger YIEPP projects offered a full 100 percent subsidy to induce local businesses to provide employment for the youths. Two sponsors decided not to have private sector worksites and Mississippi offered a 75 percent subsidy.[54] Although prime sponsors made efforts to contact businesses through intermediaries such as chambers of commerce and National Alliance of Business offices, the proportion of jobs in the private sector was lower than prime sponsors had originally projected.[55] In its initial evaluation of YIEPP, MDRC found that only 12.8 percent of the total hours worked were in private for profit firms. Over half the hours worked were in public educational agencies and other public organizations.[56]

Summary

What, then, do we know about the effectiveness of various incentives to increase private sector involvement in youth programs? These points stand out:

- programs which offer employers a source of needed workers function best during times of low unemployment and economic expansion, or when they are concentrated in emerging occupational fields;
- subsidies for on-the-job training also work best when unemployment is low;
- direct wage subsidies show promise as an effective employment-inducing tool, especially if targeted on hard-to-employ groups;
- little is known about potentially promising approaches such as subsidizing youth "trainee wages" and encouraging collaboration between the private sector and the community;

employment tax credits appear to have some impact in reducing unemployment and, if targeted on the hard-to-employ, are not inflationary;

employers are more willing to participate in programs if red tape is kept to a minimum.

What do we not know about the effectiveness of various incentives?

The biggest gaps in our knowledge of incentives are in the areas of targeted employment tax credits and wage subsidies, two approaches which seem to hold great promise. Research resulting from the new Targeted Jobs Tax Credit and the wage subsidies allowable under YEDPA should go a long way toward filling these gaps.

It seems clear that providing on-the-job training subsidies and sources of needed skills work well only when the economy is moving forward. It seems just as clear that employers will shy away from any employment incentive program laden with red tape.

In seeking new data, emphasis should be given to designing rigorous evaluations to assess the impact of a program against its economic and social backdrop. The current absence of such research makes it all the more imperative that design models be developed.

The knowledge gap goes beyond the question of financial incentives. Attitudes of employers and workers are significant factors as well. Almost no research exists, for example, on ways in which the private sector can train supervisors to work effectively with the disadvantaged.

In addition, there are numerous anecdotal examples of programs actively involving the private sector in which there seem to be no incentives to participate beyond a sense of civic responsibility. For example, see the World of Work program description on page 55. We know almost nothing about the processes and mechanisms which make such programs succeed in one community and fail in another.

Introduction to Matrix on Following Page

The matrix on the following page outlines six incentives listed by Anita Vogel which the federal government has tried in recent years to induce the private sector to hire more low income youth. Listed are the incentives, the legislation that authorized them, sources of information about program impacts (the studies themselves are detailed in the text of the paper) and lessons for replication.

Some recent incentives, such as the Targeted Jobs Tax Credit and the Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Project are not included because evaluations are not yet complete.

SUMMARY OF FEDERAL HIRING INCENTIVES

Incentive	Program Authorization	Evaluation Source	Successes?	Lessons for Replication
source of needed worker/skills	1. TAT, (MDTA) 2. NAB/JOBS (DOL)	1. Davies, Mary F., Manpower Admin., 1973	1. Placed 90% of first 2,000 graduates	1. Intensive training in high demand jobs improves placement ratio
		2. Greenleigh Associates, 1970	2. No knowledge of exact # of jobs created; program slumped during recession	2. Employers will voluntarily create many jobs only when economy is expanding
OJT Subsidies	CETA			
direct wage subsidies	MDTA YIEPP	Vogel, Anita F., citation of New York study; MDRC study	few cited; problems with employer suspicions and lack of understanding of goals	1. make goals of program clear 2. maybe more expensive than hands-on or OJT
collaboration with community agencies	Work/Education Consortium Project (DOL)	no evaluations of private sector involvement yet available*	program not completed	
tax credits for employment	New Jobs Tax Credit	University of Wisconsin project; John Bishop, Director	induced measurable reductions in unemployment; created up to 400,000 jobs	tax credits induce hiring and do not fuel inflation, if targeted on the hard-core unemployed.
wage exemptions	Fair Labor Standards Act	no evaluations available		

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*Abt Associates study under way but not yet complete

D. What do we know about the effectiveness of various kinds and levels of incentives for participants?

In the rather brief history of federal policies designed to encourage more private sector involvement in youth transition-to-work efforts, incentives generally have been aimed more at employers than participants. The reason this is so is not clear--perhaps it is an outgrowth of a widely held assumption that low-income alienated youth all desire steady jobs and that provision of such work opportunities is all that is necessary. In reality, the situation is not so simple. High school dropouts, for example, may resist returning to the classroom to earn a General Education (GED) certificate, despite its impact on later earnings and job success. In addition, private sector jobs opened up through government efforts tend to be in low-paying, low-status occupations that may not appear desirable to many youth. At the same time, however, it is important to remember that in almost every federally funded jobs program, the number of applicants far exceeds the supply of job openings.

Thus, it appears that incentives beyond a decent wage probably are not necessary to induce young people to take a job, but to help them make the often difficult transition from marginal labor market participant to skilled worker. To many youth, those who lack steady work histories and who live in poverty areas, wages earned while participating in a work experience or job training program probably are the greatest incentives. Inflation, however, continues to make such job opportunities, which usually pay little more than the minimum wage, less attractive. Traditionally, about the only other incentives that are offered are in the form of support services such as transportation and child care.

The available literature tells very little about the success of participant incentives, possibly because the problem has always been a shortage of jobs, not eligible participants. Ray Rist, in one of the few available studies, found mixed results from incentives such as academic credit for work experience. 56A/

Enactment of the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act put a new emphasis on participant incentives through the Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects. In fact, the entire YIEPP program is an incentive, since it is designed to test the effectiveness of guaranteeing jobs to high school dropouts or dropout prone youths who return to or stay in school. YIEPP is a rather expensive program, because it also authorizes 100 percent wage subsidies to employers who provide jobs for participants.

Preliminary evidence also suggests YIEPP has not been particularly successful in luring dropouts back to the classroom. According to the April 1979 MDRC study, "Entitlement may not be a sufficiently attractive offer to draw dropouts in high proportions. They appear to be reluctant to return to a regular school setting and, where there were not well-established educational alternatives, dropouts may have been discouraged. In addition, the part-time hours and wages of Entitlement during the school year may have provided an insufficient monetary incentive for dropouts. Moreover, other youth employment programs that do not require schooling, or do provide training stipends for school participation, may have attracted some dropouts as an alternative to Entitlement." 57/

It is perhaps not surprising that the often bitter high school memories of dropouts would be enough to overcome the YIEPP incentives of a guaranteed job and income. Nor is it surprising that wages must be perceived as high enough to sustain a decent living. One should keep in mind that high school dropouts are no longer children--they are competing against adults in a crowded labor market. Because so many dropouts are married or have children, their income needs are not comparable to those of their peers who are still in school.

Thus, the preliminary findings of the YIEPP program indicate that the promise of a job is, by itself, insufficient to induce dropouts to get further education.

Another incentive being tried out under the Youth Employment Act, apparently with only limited success, is the awarding of academic credit for work experience. On the face of it, this would seem a particularly attractive incentive to youth, especially dropouts, who lack only a few credits for graduation. But schools are reluctant, in the absence of recognized standards, to award credit for so nebulous a term as "work experience." 58/ In the YIEPP program, there has been only "limited success, although many sites have attempted to utilize the idea. State regulations are usually strict in allowing such credits, and a 'back to basics' movement in education has influenced school systems. There is increasing sensitivity among school officials to 'corruption of academic standards.' School systems may also have been resistant to academic credit for Entitlement work because it interferred with their own school-sponsored academic work credit programs; many already were, in connection with their vocational training programs, building up their own relationships with employers." 59/

Under YEDPA in general, researchers have found that "most program enrollees...are not yet receiving academic credit for their work." 60/ The reasons are similar to those listed above under YIEPP. Wurzburg notes, "it remains to be seen whether the absence of academic credit will be decisive in determining program success or failure..." 61/

However, the number of programs that do award academic credit for work experience appears to be growing, and already are far more prevalent than under previous CETA efforts. It must be left to future research to determine the viability of the concept.

Job sharing is another incentive that is beginning to get some serious attention. The main advantage of job sharing--at least to young trainees--is that it provides access to responsible skilled jobs normally inaccessable to entry-level workers. Under a genuine job sharing arrangement (as opposed to the more common "shadow" program in which youngsters merely follow adult workers through normal job tasks), two or more people share, usually on a rotating basis, a job normally performed by only one person.

Job sharing is becoming more popular mainly because it affords women with small children the opportunity to work part-time in a responsible job that pays well. Indeed, one of the few studies shared by two people are filled exclusively by women. The study, conducted by Stanford University researcher Gretl Meier, confirmed that many of the shared jobs are in high-paying, high-prestige occupations. Twenty-six percent were teachers, 25 percent administrators, 19 percent researchers, 15 percent clerical workers, 13 percent counselors and social service workers, and 12 percent "others," including editors and librarians. 62/

Job sharing, a concept still struggling to gain widespread acceptance, has not been widely used to open more jobs for youth. Examples of such job sharing examples are rare. The Continental Bank of Chicago is trying an experimental job-sharing program involving youth. Continental has been a leader in cooperative education since the 1950s, when it first began to hire high school juniors and seniors part-time. Bank directors have been very satisfied with their program, claiming the co-op students make better employees. 63/

A final type of participant incentive is the opportunity to own one's own business--an "entrepreneurship" incentive. The Corporation for Public/Private Ventures, with funds from the Labor Department, foundations, and private corporations is testing the entrepreneurship incentive through its Open Roads--New Enterprises effort. Among the projects funded under the effort are an auto repair shop (Aetna Life and Casualty of Hartford, Conn. provided $300,000 for this project), an ice cream store and a housing rehabilitation company. Training and support services are integral to the youth-run businesses. The entrepreneurship programs not only provide an incentive to participants but help create jobs for young people. At least that is the hope. The effectiveness of this effort must await further evaluation.

Summary

Because incentives have been directed more toward employers than participants, the available literature tells very little about their effectiveness in encouraging disadvantaged youth to get the education and job skills they need for stable employment. Although support services such as child care and transportation have often been provided in the past, their effectiveness as incentives has not been researched.

The Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects was designed to test the impact of guaranteed jobs on youth willing to return to or remain in school. Initial data indicate the minimum wage jobs have not been particularly successful in this regard. The availability of academic credit for work experience also has not proven a strong inducement for dropouts or similar youth to continue their educations, although evidence so far is only preliminary.

It is too soon to make any generalizations about other participant incentives such as job sharing or entrepreneurship opportunities. Pilot programs are under way to test these and similar approaches but have not yielded any important results thus far.

Although the literature does not say so directly, it strongly implies that the best incentives for youth program participants are opportunities to earn money, get out of school and be placed in jobs. Dropouts, especially, seem particularly reluctant to continue their educations as a prerequisite to job placement.

Ultimately, says Regis Walther, the issue is "how can the 'hard core unemployed' be served and at the same time the cost to the employer kept within acceptable limits. The strategy may be different depending upon whether the employer is in the profit or nonprofit sector. Government agencies and nonprofit organizations often accept responsibility for placing disadvantaged youth and have a higher toleration for low productivity. Private employers, being sensitive to the profit situation of their enterprise, tend to be much less tolerant of low productivity, and less inclined to carry poorly performing employees as a social responsibility." [63A/]

But beyond these data, the information on the effectiveness of participant incentives is scarce indeed. The importance of support services is very poorly documented. Intuitively, at least, provision of services such as child care and transportation vouchers would seem to be important incentives for potential participants. But, to date, little research has been undertaken to identify the importance of support service incentives.

The issue of participant incentives goes far beyond those actually identified as such, e.g., job guarantees and child care. Almost all work preparation programs are in and of themselves incentives, providing such inducements as:

*opportunities for job training

*wages

*supportive environments in which to discover one's interests and aspirations

*opportunities to escape welfare dependency

*job placement

*remedial reading, writing and math instruction

Each participant has his or her own motives for enrolling and it would be difficult (although not impossible) to sort out which of the inherent or specific program incentives proved most attractive. There is much work to be done in this area.

What do we not know about the effectiveness of participant incentives?

Because participant incentives have rarely been a specifically identified feature of work preparation programs, their effectiveness is poorly understood. Perhaps the biggest gap in our knowledge is the extent to which the inherent incentives in current programs attract participants. Defense Department research--if available--might shed some light on the incentive value of job training to potential recruits. Data from the Labor Department's National Longitudinal Study also would be useful.

More information is needed on the YIEPP program as well. If wages from part-time jobs were not enough inducement to high school dropouts, what level of wages would be more effective? Do dropouts discount the value of a high school diploma completely, or is it the idea of returning to the highly structured educational environment that turns them off?

Regis Walther offers some answers:

> "There is a wide range of reasons why students drop out of school, and different types of incentives are probably needed for different categories of dropouts. My longitudinal research indicated for the particular samples of disadvantage youth that economic factors played a minor part in causing the student to leave school. Among the males, in particular, many had effectively dropped out of school a number of years before it was legal for them to do so. They had experienced many years of failure, had an extremely negative attitude toward school, were reading a number of grades below grade level, and most of the schools were illequipped to deal with them. Most of them recognized the economic value of a high school diploma but could not cope with the school curriculum. Financial incentives did not serve to motivate such youth to complete high school. There is considerable literature about how such youth can be encouraged to continue their education." 63A/

Crucial to understanding the role of participant incentives is more knowledge about the success of support services in attracting enrollees.

In sum, what we don't know about the effectiveness of participant incentives far outstrips what we do know.

In addition, much more needs to be learned about the role of academic credit for work experience. The knowledge gap is two-fold: whether academic credit is an attractive incentive and whether it is a practical idea, given strict state regulations and the absence of approved standards.

E. What do we know about the effectiveness of efforts to reduce institutional barriers (including social, legal and regulatory costs) to greater private sector involvement in youth school-to-work transition programs?

Researchers have done a much better job identifying barriers to greater private sector youth program involvement than they have discovering how these barriers can be overcome. Drawn from two major reports,* these barriers include:

- school attendance laws;
- federal child labor laws;
- unemployment compensation laws (state and federal);
- social security withholding;
- minimum wage laws;
- occupational licensing, both state and union;
- minimum age for driver's license;
- geographical/transportation barriers;
- racial and sex discrimination;
- employer attitudes toward young workers;
- poor academic preparation of job-seekers; and
- decline in the number of entry-level jobs.

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*The Manpower Institute, Study of Corporate Youth Employment Policies and Practices, Washington, D.C., 1973. Vocational Foundation, Inc., Our Time to Listen, 1978.

The biggest problem in examining these barriers is attempting to isolate their effects from one another. There is even disagreement on whether issues such as the minimum wage and child labor laws have any adverse affect at all. A 1965 Stanford Research Institute study, for example, concluded that "many variations and intricacies of child labor laws probably have little effect on the work opportunities of youth except insofar as they serve to confuse labor and school officials and employers." [64]

Debate still continues as well over the impact of the new minimum wage law. The Department of Labor calculated that a 25 percent boost in the minimum wage would lower teenage employment from 3 percent to 6 percent. [65] The Congressional Budget Office noted, however,

> There are...enough ambiguities in the results of these studies to cast some doubt on the findings...(I)t is very difficult to explain satisfactorily the level of teenage employment and to isolate the effects of any single influence such as the minimum wage. The range of results from attempts to do so has been wide. [66]

A 1975 study by the National Manpower Institute for the National Committee on the Employment of Youth found that 19 percent of employers thought child labor laws were impediments to hiring, while 64 percent thought they were not. In addition, 90 percent said changes in child labor laws would not influence them to hire more 14 and 15 year olds, while 59 percent said "no" in the case of 16 and 17 year olds. [67]

The effects of other barriers such as race and sex discrimination and geography are equally difficult to assess. Race discrimination is almost surely a factor, revealing itself to some extent in the wide disparity between jobless rates for black and white teenagers (about 14 percent for whites, compared to over 37 percent for blacks). But how much of that gap is due to discrimination and how much to the fact that 56 percent of black teens live in central cities with few job opportunities?

Georgetown University researchers Bradley Billings and Selma Mushkin listed the following variables as having an impact on teenage job opportunities: median hourly wages; unemployment tax contribution rate; degree of unionization (for out of school youth only); job training completion ratios; and proportion of youth to total males and the ratio of blacks to whites. [68]

Employer attitudes toward young workers no doubt have an impact on job opportunities but there is little research to back up such an assumption. This potentially important issue is all the more difficult to assess since the hiring practices of employers usually are decentralized and the result of the perceptions and attitudes of the individuals in charge of employee selection. 69/

At conferences and panel discussions involving employers one repeatedly hears that young workers are less educated and less motivated than in times past and that they change jobs so rapidly that investment in training is hardly worthwhile.*

Indeed, a 1977 survey by the National Federation of Independent Business found that 38 percent of employers complained that job applicants "won't stay long", 39 percent complained about "no job skills", 13 percent said applicants "can't read", 34 percent said they had "inflated wage expectations", and 21 percent complained about the appearance of applicants. Only 19 percent of the employers had no complaints. 70/

As Regis Walther notes, it is important to know whether these attitudes are justified. "It is important to know if these attitudes are based on realistic or unrealistic appraisals. If they are based primarily on employer prejudice, a strategy directed toward giving the youth a chance to demonstrate their work competence can be effective. On the other hand, it will be futile to attempt to change the attitudes of employers if they encounter frequent examples of inadequate performance on the part of the youth referred to them. A predictable result will be that the employer will be less likely to accept a referral the next time around. My review of the evidence leads me to conclude that there are serious employability problems of some categories of youth, which go beyond the problems created by adverse attitudes of employers." 70A/

Summary

In summary, then, conclusions about barriers to greater private sector youth program involvement include the following:

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*See, for example, "'Basic Skills' Must Include Work and Life Values, Panelists Agree," Education and Work, Oct. 2, 1979.

- almost no research exists on the effectiveness of various approaches to reduce barriers;
- isolating the effects of individual barriers is a difficult, and maybe impossible, task;
- confusion over laws and regulations may be more of a barrier than the laws and regulations themselves;
- the impact of the minimum wage on teenage unemployment is unclear but probably slightly harmful;
- race and sex discrimination continue to have a negative impact on teenage job opportunities but to an unknown extent.*

What do we not know about ways to reduce these barriers?

It is probably fair to say that we know very little about how to reduce these barriers. Some, such as state and federal child labor laws, always will be on the lawbooks in one form or another, and it may be prudent to design programs to conform with them while attempting to revise and update them periodically.

Other barriers, such as the minimum wage, can be reduced by taking advantage of waivers available from the Department of Labor. But no one really knows whether the minimum wage is a significant barrier. Ultimately, it may be better to focus research not so much on determining the effects of individual barriers, but on ways to overcome them. The complexity of the labor market makes isolating barriers a risky business. Working to reduce barriers already identified, however, may yield measurable results in terms of greater job opportunities or lower unemployment.

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*As Regis Walther notes, however, there is "some evidence" that minority females find work easier than do minority males. 70A/

F. What do we know about the effectiveness of processes and mechanisms to improve the attitudes of employers and schools, including colleges and universities, community-based organizations and others toward more joint participation in youth programs?

With the (at best) mixed success of federal efforts to directly induce the private sector to participate in employment and training programs, new attention is being paid to collaboration between business people and other community groups as a way of opening up new jobs and training slots.

Many new insights should result from the Labor Department's multi-year effort to establish and develop a network of local school-to-work councils with the aid of the National Manpower Institute, National Alliance of Business and the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges.

Community interaction was a basic hope for the NAB when it established its decentralized network of "metro" offices. The recently created "private industry councils" encourage more private sector involvement in CETA and show how seriously the idea of community collaboration is being pursued.

Career education since its inception has stressed the importance of processes to involve the whole gamut of community organizations, from local chambers of commerce to the Girl Scouts.

This new emphasis on community involvement is not really new. The concept of allowing more local control over federal programs is one of the characteristics that distinguishes CETA from MDTA. Yet it is ironic that so little research has been done to find out whether local leaders are able to run programs better than federal administrators can. More importantly, almost no research has been financed to discover--in those areas where local collaboration seems to be working--what the common denominators are. True, all communities are different to some extent. Yet little effort has been made to analyze local conditions which make cooperation among disparate groups a working reality or merely an objective.

In searching for the common denominators of local collaborative success, research findings from such disciplines as organizational dynamics may prove helpful, but are outside the scope of this paper. Still, very little of this information has been worked into the evaluations of locally operated employment and training programs. Some "common sense" assumptions about factors influencing local collaborative processes might include:

- local political realities - is the area under the influence of a political "boss," a city management committee, or is it lacking strong leadership?
- the history of past collaborative attempts - have they been fruitful or destructive?
- the disparity among competing interest groups - is the area racially or ethnically homogenous? Is there a strong sense of regional or local provencialism?
- the existence of a community leadership structure - are there respected and effective leaders in the community, even if they are outside the main political process?

On the other hand, there are dozens of anecdotal examples of community youth efforts which appear to be successful, but which have never been rigorously evaluated. A typical example: employers in El Monte, California, have hired more than 350 street gang members as a result of a program run by the local police department and Boys' Club. Over 60 companies have participated. The local Chamber of Commerce and several city governments put up nearly $100,000 a year to keep the program operating. Employers think so highly of it they voluntarily contact program operators when they have job openings. 71/

On the surface, this World of Work program sounds like a smashing success. Unfortunately, no formal records have ever been kept. Why have employers been so eager to get involved? What has been the key to raising private sector operating funds? Have only the easiest-to-place gang members benefitted? How long do they stay on the job? Do they advance in their careers? Is the program cost effective? What individual or organization was responsible for getting community groups to participate? What was the key to success? These basic questions must go unanswered until the program is examined more closely.

This example is very typical of the sketchy information which exists on getting the private sector and community groups (especially schools) to work together. Perhaps more will be known when the results of new YEDPA and PSIP efforts are scrutinized.

Until then, the evidence on what processes are most effective remains meager indeed. The few studies which exist of experience-based career education and cooperative education shed a little light on the subject. A 1974 EBCE evaluation found that 14 Philadelphia employers who backed out of a second year's participation in the program did so because: funds or staff were unavailable; activities were not adequate; students were perceived as insufficiently motivated; and some of the employers were in the process of an internal reorganization. However, 87 percent of the employers stuck with the program. 72/

The Office of Education evaluation of 50 cooperative education programs concluded only that, "Employers feel that they are getting their money's worth out of the student workers and are contributing to their occupation."73/ The Detroit Institute of Technology study of postsecondary cooperative education found that employers had participated in cooperative education for an average of 9 years each, so obviously they like something about it. 74/

Stromsdorfer found that co-op ed employers--in Dayton, at least--had been established longer than nonparticipating employers, were larger, and tended to serve local and regional markets rather than national or international markets. Nonparticipants, on the other hand, did not make a practice of hiring 16 and 17 year olds at all, but the researchers found no "hard core resistance" to the co-op program. 75/

The 1978 NAM survey revealed that employers get involved in job training programs for reasons that combine pragmatism with social conscience. In order, these reasons were: monetary savings; productive workers; clear, simple on-the-job training contracts; good recruiting service; and gains in social regognition. 76/

Summary

None of these studies indicates what the best approaches might be. One is forced to read "between the lines" of existing research and make some tentative statements about what we know about effective collaborative processes:

- A program must offer an employer a clear incentive to participate, be it in the form of funds or a chance to improve the local community;

- There must be a forum such as an advisory panel in which competing interest groups can meet and resolve problems;
- Success is heavily influenced by the amount and quality of communication;
- The amount of collaboration will be influenced by past experiences;
- Program success hinges on the existence of a leader or leaders with active commitment to the program;
- There should be a mechanism, however informal, for measuring program success, which, unfortunately for youth programs, usually centers around the number of job placements; and
- Success has a great deal to do with the extent to which the goals of various interest groups are accommodated.

These are only assumptions; "signposts" to be used in evaluating results of future research on this topic.

What do we not know about these processes and mechanisms?

Is is clear that there is little hard evidence to go on in devising mechanisms for private sector collaboration with schools and other community organizations. It is a virgin field and one that begs exploration. There are signs, however, that we have begun to be more sophisticated in our thinking about employment and training. Increasingly, program designers appear to be paying more attention to the human factors on which success rides or falls.

G. What do we know about the accuracy, fairness and utility of various criteria used to measure the effectiveness of private sector involvement in youth programs, particularly with respect to skills acquisition and transference? What alternative approaches may be considered with what projected outcomes?

Measuring the effectiveness of youth employment and training programs is a thorny issue for many reasons :

Until then, the evidence on what processes are most effective remains

- There must be a forum such as an advisory panel in which competing interest groups can meet and resolve problems;
- Success is heavily influenced by the amount and quality of communication;
- The amount of collaboration will be influenced by past experiences;
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Is is clear that there is little hard evidence to go on in devising mechanisms for private sector collaboration with schools and other community organizations. It is a virgin field and one that begs exploration. There are signs, however, that we have begun to be more sophisticated in our thinking about employment and training. Increasingly, program designers appear to be paying more attention to the human factors on which success rides or falls.

G. What do we know about the accuracy, fairness and utility of various criteria used to measure the effectiveness of private sector involvement in youth programs, particularly with respect to skills acquisition and transference? What alternative approaches may be considered with what projected outcomes?

Measuring the effectiveness of youth employment and training programs is a thorny issue for many reasons:

- extensive testing and use of control groups are expensive and time-consuming processes;
- isolating variables from a complex economic and social context is a frustrating and difficult task;
- initial program goals often are not spelled out clearly, making evaluation difficult;
- there is the danger that some types of evaluations may mask race and sex discrimination;
- in youth programs involving the private sector, there often is disagreement over who should benefit most from the program, the youth or the employers;
- many traditional measures, such as job placements and job duration, are poor indicators of youth program success since young people change jobs frequently anyway as part of the normal school-to-work transition process.

There are other factors, but these indicate why the range of youth program evaluations is so inconsistent in quality. Of these factors, the two most difficult probably are measuring the long-term effects of youth programs and isolating social and economic factors from one another. Longitudinal studies are expensive. When they are undertaken, they often result in a mass of data about a fairly broad topic. These data are extremely helpful, but often difficult to interpret.

Herbert Parnes' National Longitudinal Survey of the labor market experiences of young men has been gathering mountains of data at Ohio State University for more than 10 years. It tells a great deal about the factors which influence labor market entry, but sheds little light on the private sector's specific role. [77] Similarly, the Labor Department's Continuous Longitudinal Manpower Survey is a basic source of data on CETA clients, but does not analyze the success of programs involving the private sector versus those which don't. [78]

Yet longitudinal surveys may be the only type which can adequately assess the impact of private sector youth transition to work programs. As research and common sense have shown, the school-to-work transition is a "volatile" one, characterized by rapid job-changing as youths "find themselves" in the labor market. [79] So youth programs which emphasize quick job placements often do so on the assumption that labor market experience will help youngsters secure future jobs. Yet there is little hard evidence that this is so for disadvantaged groups. [80] Such evidence could be developed through a well-constructed longitudinal survey.

To isolate a multiplicity of social and economic variables, control groups often are used to measure specific program approaches. These, too, are expensive and difficult to construct, but probably provide the best data on what works.

Some well constructed evaluations have been done by the National Institute of Education in connection with Experience-Based Career Education. A 1974 EBCE evaluation used this approach:

- Four student groups were selected for analysis. Two were experimental groups, two were control groups.
- A pre-test, post-test measurement package was designed. Students were tested at the beginning and end of the school year. Two of the measures used were standardized commercially available tests. The other two were designed specially for the project.
- Another series of measures was constructed for the experimental group only. Included were an Employer Cluster Test, the Student Opinion Survey, the Parent Opinion Survey, the Employer Checklist and Interview, the Career Exploration Student Questionnaire, and a number of forms. The tests were administered in varying cycles. [81] Unfortunately, the study did not explain why only the experimental group was given these tests.

This well-thought-out evaluation model has made EBCE one of the better documented of all career education related programs. Yet even here the results are not definitive.

CETA-type programs, on the other hand, generally stress number and percentage placed in jobs, income increases after participation, and length of job retention. Training programs usually include dropout rates in their evaluations. Missing from most CETA evaluations, however, are such important items as placement in jobs related to training, potential of jobs for future career development, and the degree of sex stereotyping in placement. In point of fact, the job placement rate has proved an extremely unreliable measure of program success. Several studies have shown that less than half of those recorded as "permanent" placements still are on the job six months later. [82]

Unfortunately, the vast majority of private sector youth program evaluations defy comparison. There are four reasons for this situation:

- the absence of standard federal evaluation models which can be "plugged into" an experimental program;
- pressure to get the program off the ground, which usually eliminates needed planning time;
- inexperience among program staff;
- lack of funds

While it is probably impossible to solve all these problems, a good beginning would be to clearly define program goals, allow enough time for an evaluation design to be developed, and earmark enough of the budget for a thorough analysis of the program's impact. Until these basic conditions are met, it will continue to be extremely difficult to generalize about what programs work and why.

The Department of Labor's Office of Youth Programs has realized the necessity for developing comparable evaluation data. With Youth Employment Act money, a special battery of tests has been developed by the Educational Testing Service to evaluate program participants according to several criteria. These tests are administered to participants and a national control group to measure employability skills and rates of employment both before and after their experiences in YEDPA programs.

Standardized individual participant profiles also are being compiled, as are employer ratings, program completion and follow-up data. When tabulated, this information will present one of the most comprehensive pictures of youth programs and participants ever assembled. Thus, our knowledge about the utility and comparability of evaluation data and techniques stands to be greatly enhanced just a few years down the road.

What can be said about the projected outcomes of various evaluation designs? The literature is not very specific, but these points can be made about the following list of common evaluation measures:

*Job Placement--Is heavily influenced by the overall health of the economy; negative attitudes of employers toward hiring the young; and the "volatility" of the youth labor market in which young entrants switch jobs frequently in their search for meaningful and well-paying work. May mask race and sex discrimination.

*Mastery of Job Skills--Is a good measure of participants' ability to learn, but by itself ignores employability and human relations skills. May work against youngsters with low levels of basic academic skills or with histories of failure.

*Career Maturity--Reliable instruments exist to measure occupational knowledge and career maturity and these are often used to evaluate work experience programs or those designed for younger teenagers. These measures appear to be vital to any assessment of programs not specifically designed to place youngsters immediately in full-time jobs. Over-emphasis will put younger teenagers and minorities at a disadvantage, however.

*Human Relations Skills--Are directly connected to on-the-job success and can be evaluated in a number of ways, including simulations. One of the biggest obstacles is overcoming the low self-esteem of many disadvantaged youth, which appears in the forms of both aggressiveness and defensiveness. Special attention should be given to evaluations that involve delinquent or severely aliented youth, who frequently are placed into programs with less troubled youngsters and may have a higher failure rate.

Summary

What can be said, then, of the evaluations which constitute the basic literature on youth transition-to-work programs? The most obvious conclusion is that most studies rely heavily on job placement rates to measure program effectiveness. Yet placement rates are greatly affected by local and national economic conditions, the skills of participants and the "volatility" of youth's transition to work. An overemphasis on placement rates also may mask race and sex discrimination if success is achieved through placements in low-skill or traditionally "female" jobs.

Conspicuously absent from nearly all evaluations are control groups by which some measure of comparability might be achieved. Rarely does a study say why a control group is not part of the evaluation design. The cost and complexity of control groups are likely deterrents. The evaluation of the Career Intern Program is a laudable exception to the lack of control group evaluations.

Missing, too, from most evaluations is a follow-up of program participants. Again, cost and complexity probably limit the amount of information which can be gathered from participants six months or a year after they leave a program. Such data would be valuable, however.

The absence of such basic evaluation techniques as pre- and post-tests, control groups and participant follow-up plays havoc with any attempt to discover what has been learned from youth transition-to-work efforts. Thus there is a tendency to "reinvent the wheel" each time a new initiative is begun because the insights gained from previous efforts are lost in a jumble of inadequate and confusing data.

What do we not know about these criteria?

A great deal is known about testing in the social sciences. Rigorous scientific procedures have been devised and a number of standardized measures have been developed. These instruments are far from perfect, however, and are only as good as the clarity with which the objective is defined. Even these standards, however, have not often been used to evaluate private sector youth programs for a variety of reasons. Thus what we don't know about program effectiveness is more a function of this lack of uniformity than it is of defects in the evaluation process itself. While each has its problems, good tests are available for measuring such crucial factors as career interest, occupational awareness, occupational maturity, basic academic skills, personality traits, and aptitudes. As former NIE director Harold Hodgkinson once observed, there are virtually no human educational skills or personality traits which cannot be tested with a fair amount of accuracy. 83/

Until program goals are specified more clearly and evaluation designs made more uniform, it will be difficult, if not impossible, to compare program effects or assess whether certain kinds of measures are even applicable to youth programs.

H. What do we know about how private sector work supervisors can be better prepared to supervise youth? How can unions and other individuals and

groups, e.g., retired workers, serve as resources to schools to improve youth orientation to the world of work and private sector employment opportunities?

It is a common assumption that young workers need more supervision than do adults. Youngsters lack familiarity with general work routines and specific job tasks. In the working world at large, most training is acquired on the job, with supervisors or older employees providing instruction and special help as needed. This "hands-on" training is generally viewed--especially by employers--as the fastest and most effective method of creating productive workers.

Although private sector employers appear willing to continue training their young workers, there is growing concern that the reading, writing and math skills of the young--plus such desirable attitudes as dedication to work--are inadequate and declining further. Thus, it takes longer for young workers to become productive and the amount of needed supervision is increased.

It is the cost of supervision, rather than an inherent "generation gap" between adult and youthful workers that appears to create the greatest resistance among employers to participating in federal transition to work programs. Indeed, in an evaluation of the Massachusetts Secondary School Work Experience Program, the most frequent reason given for not hiring more students was the "insufficient number of supervisory personnel. Employers felt students required a lot of supervision which took a big chunk out of the supervisor's day." [84]

The need for increased supervision of job trainees is an implicit assumption in most CETA programs, in which dollar reimbursements are paid to cover just such expenses as increased supervisory time.

But it is one thing to say that more and better supervision is needed and another to say how it can best be provided. As with many of the other issues addressed in this paper; the available literature is more descriptive than evaluative. Rarely does the research say how supervisors can be better prepared to deal with young job trainees. Programs pay employers reimbursements to provide additional supervision, not, as a rule, to improve its quality.

In addition to the financial burden to employers of increased supervision, supervisors themselves often must cope with their own negative attitudes toward the young in general and the low-income specifically. Although little is currently heard about the "generation gap" that sparked so many arguments during the 1960s, adults often feel the younger generation has less commitment to hard work than before. Researchers have not yet addressed, however, how the attitudes of adults and youth can be modified to allow more give-and-take in the transmission of job skills and work habits.

Racism, usually covert but sometimes overt, certainly has a substantial impact on the relations between supervisors and trainees, but it is very elusive and difficult to document. The National Commission on Employment Policy has declared that racism is the chief barrier to more job opportunities for low income blacks but has cited no research (other than income and employment statistics) to back up that charge. 85/ But even if racism already had been identified as a quantifiable barrier to more private sector work opportunities, no research exists on ways in which the race-conscious attitudes of supervisors have been successfully mollified.

One must go back to 1969 to find a program that specifically looked at the quality and amount of supervision needed to successfully move high school dropouts into productive jobs. The Equitable Life Assurance Company in 1969 began hiring dropouts for entry-level jobs and initially experienced a high failure rate. Results were improved when better supervision and remedial education were added. The company chose supervisors known to be sympathetic to the plight of the dropouts and made clear that the supervisors' work with the youngsters would not be charged against their regular budget or efficiency rating.

During the second year of the program, supervisors were challenged to prepare the youngsters for a specific job within the company. During the third year, the task was to prepare the young dropouts for promotion. The success rate increased each year. 86/

The National Alliance of Business probably has the most experience in providing special training to supervisors who work with the disadvantaged. For nearly a decade, most NAB metro offices throughout the nation have offered a program called "Awareness Training." Supervisors participate in seven special exercises concentrating on effective communication and interpersonal skills. Topics include selective listening, instruction in giving and receiving information, bias, value systems, problem solving, and management styles.

Although the training sessions have not been rigorously evaluated, Garth Mangum reports that "most employers who have had representatives attend these training sessions report that it has been useful in keeping newly hired disadvantaged workers on the job." Mangum adds that a common reason the disadvantaged give for quitting a job "is that they don't like the supervisors or the way they are treated." 87/

Most programs to secure greater involvement in work preparation of the young by the private sector are based on the inherent assumption that isolation of youth and adults from one another is a cause of distrust or misunderstanding. Many programs have been started that encourage the sharing of knowledge and experiences between adults and youngsters. For example:

> *Employees of the Husky Oil Company volunteer to provide information in schools on various career opportunities in the oil industry.
>
> *General Electric operates Programs to Increase Minority Engineering Graduates, aimed at encouraging talented minorities to get better training and preparation for engineering careers.
>
> *Shell Oil Company employees help students prepare for college entrance tests, apply for financial assistance, and deal with admissions paperwork under the sponsor for Educational Opportunity program.
>
> *Kodak's Colorado division runs a series of career education tours that offer junior high school students opportunities to discuss the relationship of academic subjects to the world of work and talk with employees about their special interests.

Many other examples exist of efforts aimed at breaking down the barriers between youth and working adults. The point is that none, to our knowledge, has been specifically evaluated. One reason may be that the quantifiable goals of such programs are difficult to define. Only through a longitudinal survey can one track a change in attitudes, and even then the results are rarely conclusive.

One must read between the lines of the available literature to assess how effective the use of working adults or retired persons can be as a resource to youth. One problem--a major one--is logistics: how and when do these resource persons make their information available. In many communities, business people maintain a speaker's bureau of individuals who are available to go into schools and provide career related information. Yet in one of the most active, operated in conjunction with the Business Industry Community Education Partnership (BICEP) in Salt Lake City, Utah, only 7 percent of classroom teachers made use of speaker's bureau. 88/ As Wurzburg noted, teachers often resent activities which compete for classroom time normally devoted to academic instruction. 89/

Still, there is a severe lack of evidence on the impact either of better preparing work supervisors or using working adults as career resource persons. A study begun in 1979 by the National School Volunteer Program may help illuminate the subject. Their study will focus on the best procedures for utilizing volunteers to improve vocational education in urban areas. A project funded by ACTION in the summer of 1979 also may prove useful; a four-city pilot test of volunteer "service learning," in which young people work with other community groups to improve local conditions. Another potential source of data is the Work Education Consortium Project. The 32 work-education councils established or expanded with federal money in 1975 have emphasized local collaborative action. Many of the councils have established strong linkages between schools and local employers and have involved retired workers, business leaders, union officials and others. A great deal of descriptive information exists on these councils and should be examined in greater detail.

Summary

The relationships between worksite supervisors and young job-holders is of prime importance to the success of any work preparation program involving the private sector. Despite evidence that supervisors often are biased against young people (especially if they are black or hispanic), there is little information available on the best ways to recruit and train supervisors who will work well with them. The National Alliance of Business has several years' experience in providing supervisor training, but its impact has never been fully evaluated.

To most employers, the cost of supervisory time is a major factor in their reluctance to participate in youth work programs. As a result, most CETA efforts reimburse employers for the additional supervision needed for young job trainees.

There is much more agreement about the necessity for good supervision than on the best ways to provide it. Previous experience shows that the best supervisors tend to be men and women sympathetic to the plight of the disadvantaged and to whom they can relate. Descriptive literature often alludes to the necessity for a mixture of toughness, compassion and patience, but the extent to which these qualities are vital to success has never been documented.

Efforts aimed at overcoming the generational barriers between youth and adults are fairly common but poorly documented, possibly because of the difficulty in defining precise objectives. Methods of improving communication and interaction among disparate groups of people are well developed in the social sciences but are outside the scope of this paper. However, this knowledge should be put to use in assessing ways to create supportive learning environments for supervisors and their charges.

What do we not know about how supervisors can be better prepared to work with youth or how individuals and organizations can serve as resources to youth?

This issue is really in two parts and the literature provides very little information about either one. As mentioned, most of the research is merely descriptive, but does serve to document the growing interest in collaboration from which efforts to provide greater contact between youth and adults are derived.

From Labor Department and HEW literature, it is clear we know very little about how supervisors can become more effective in working with youth, especially the disadvantaged and minorities. Answers to this question may have to come from the wider body of sociological and psychological research data. Theories and training programs abound on topics such as teamwork, communication, supervision, discipline, and goal-setting. Preparing supervisors to work with youth is really no different than other training efforts aimed at improving motivation, communication and understanding. The experiences of the private sector in achieving these goals with their regular employees may be useful in evaluating the special problems in dealing with disadvantaged youth.

The available research is no more helpful in identifying ways in which adults can serve as world-of-work resources for youth. Not only do we not know the best ways in which these resources can be provided, it is unclear whether greater contacts between youths and adults are even helpful. An investigation of the literature in the general area of counseling might turn up some answers.

Specifically lacking are evaluations of the various collaborative efforts that have begun in recent years either as a result of federal interest (e.g., the Work-Education Consortium Project) or a general dissatisfaction with the isolated and monolithic nature of many institutions. The concept of a collaborative sharing of resources is very attractive but must be tested with greater vigor. We cannot say at this point what approach works best or whether the concept is viable at all.

I. What do we know about how needed support services to inschool youth at private sector jobs can be arranged and provided.

The literature on the provision of support services is mostly descriptive and, as discussed in Question D, lacks assessments of its success. That many youth placed in private sector jobs or work experience situations need various support services is assumed with growing frequency as our sophistication about the employability needs of the young increases. Indeed, many, if not most, current programs linked with the private sector provide support services that may include:

*counseling

*day care

*transportation

*special supervision

*training

*career information

*job placement services

*aptitude assessment

Although evaluations of support services are scarce, anecdotal examples are fairly numerous. For example:

> *Seventy-four youths in Binghamton, N.Y. received, along with their vocational training, a battery of aptitude tests, career counseling, academic tutoring, job placement and employability skills instruction. Project staff included a placement development specialist, a career education instructor and a counselor.
>
> *Youths who participated in a 1977 CETA Title III program in Tifton, Ga. received personal counseling, health care, and job placement services from local agencies as part of their training program. A second job placement was offered if the first proved unsatisfactory.
>
> *The Department of Social and Economic Services in St. Petersburg, Fla. provided day care, health care, and other social services to 265 youthful offenders. The local Vocational Assistance Center provided funds for transportation, tools, union dues and job development assistance.
>
> *In-school delinquent youth in Cincinnati participated in a 1977 CETA program in which they received, in addition to job counseling and placement, support services that included diagnostic tests, juvenile therapy groups, counselor training, transportation and cultural enrichment. 90/

These examples are typical of the support services that have been and are being provided disadvantaged youth placed in private sector jobs and work experience slots. Often, these services are provided through collaborative arrangements with various community organizations. Schools, for example, may provide remedial academic instruction and career counseling; local social services departments may provide screening, health and child care; vocational education agencies may provide transportation, tools and employability skills instruction; and employers may provide special training or supervision.

There is almost widespread agreement that support services are needed to help many young people, primarily the disadvantaged, make the transition from school to work. Many lack knowledge about such basics as job interviewing, filling out applications and Social Security forms, working with others and reporting to work on time. The high percentage of single household heads and teenage mothers among the low-income young makes such services as child care and transportation vital to program success.

While the need for support services is increasingly understood, evaluations of what kinds of services are needed most and how they can be delivered most effectively have not been undertaken to any useful extent. Because many youth transition programs are complex amalgams of agencies and services and operate within a variety of social and economic contexts, evaluation of the specific role played by support services is a difficult task. It is fairly safe to say that without support services, many programs involving private sector work experiences would be doomed to failure. Yet it cannot be said that the presence of a comprehensive array of services insures program success.

According to Garth Mangum, "No components of employment and training programs are more difficult to analyze and to prescribe for than counseling and supportive services." Support services, he said, "have rarely been provided from employment and training program funds; in most cases, counselors promoted them on a voluntary basis." Thus, Mangum contends that the call for support services over the years has been more "rhetoric." 91/

It is noteworthy that the generally rigorous evaluations planned or undertaken since enactment of the Youth Employment Act do not include assessments of support services as they influence program quality. Because of the increased collaboration resulting from YEDPA's mandates and incentives, support services appear to be getting new attention. At this point, however, the assumption that support services make a difference is still only an assumption; the degree of impact has not been rigorously tested.

Summary

Support services ranging from counseling to child care play an apparently important role in the success of youth transition-to-work programs. However, researchers have made few attempts to assess just how important that role is or how support services can best be provided. The need for support services is obvious to many program administrators: disadvantaged youth often have no knowledge of the labor market; lack reliable transportation; often need medical and dental care; and frequently lack basic reading and writing skills needed for job success. The literature abounds with anecdotal examples of how support services have been creatively provided at low cost (e.g., repairing the cars of job trainees at local vocational schools). But rarely, if ever, have attempts been made to isolate a particular support service and evaluate its individual impact on a program. Instead, support services generally are supplied as needed, given the usual budget restrictions.

A likely reason for the paucity of research on support services is the difficulty in measuring their impact.

Provision of effective support services is one of the most poorly documented areas of the transition-to-work issue. Until experimental programs using control groups are set up to test the value of various support services, the level of knowledge will remain low.

What do we not know about how support services to in-school youth can be provided?

The importance of support services to the success of work preparation programs involving in-school youth is now less often questioned and indeed appears rather obvious. We know much less, however, about how these support services can be provided most effectively.

Support services address a number of needs, including:

*transportation between the school and the job site

*job related reading and math skills

*employability skills training

*career counseling

*day care

*wages to help meet personal and family expenses

*job placement

The available literature is almost completely silent about the best ways in which these needs can be met, even though many work preparation programs provide various support services. These services are rarely, if ever, evaluated separately in the program evaluations done in the past, and so it is difficult to say either what we know or don't know about the best ways to provide them. We can say, for example, that students who are provided occupational information tend to do better in terms of job hunting, but we can't say how this information can be provided most effectively.

Evaluation of support service delivery mechanisms is a field that requires much more attention by researchers if transition-to-work programs are to become truly effective.

J. What do we know about how students can be helped to avoid unreal expectations of future employment? What do we know about how new methods and flexible approaches can be developed for youth to learn about and prepare for trades for which there may be apprenticeship?

For a variety of reasons, young people often have quite unrealistic expectations about their careers. The National Assessment of Educational Progress consistently turns up youth's rather appalling ignorance about careers. One poll even discovered that 14 percent of the nation's 13-year olds believed the right to a good job was guaranteed by the Constitution. [93/]

At the same time, however, other studies, notably Ohio State University's National Longitudinal Study and the Career Thresholds effort by the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor, have found that the career ambitions of the young undergo a rather drastic transformation as they leave school and make their way into the working world. The important question here is whether it is dysfunctional for large numbers of young people to dream of becoming professional athletes, ballerinas or corporation presidents, when in fact their careers are far more likely to take less lofty paths. For many, this gradual adjustment of career objectives is a normal part of life with few serious consequences. For others, however, especially poor inner-city youngsters whose idea of success is derived largely from mass media images, an inability to define realistic career goals may be an extremely frustrating experience. This frustration can lead to severe alienation, self-hatred, ennui and even violence.

Ignorance of labor market realities plays a large role in the disparity between the career aspirations of youth and their likely alternatives. Regis

Walther notes that research studies document the effectiveness of more and better labor market information in overcoming this ignorance. [94]

Labor market information and other forms of career advice generally are provided to youth by counselors. Most researchers are extremely gloomy in their assessments of vocational counseling success, however. According to Regis Walther, "The available evidence with respect to the effectiveness of counseling is discouraging. No studies were located which have demonstrated a positive relationship between amount or type of counseling and the achievement of program goals." [95] Walther describes three types of counseling commonly used to help disadvantaged youth assess their abilities and aspirations and make realistic career decisions:

> *Insight Counseling, designed to increase the individuals' understanding of himself and the world.
>
> *Personal Problems Counseling, aimed at helping young people deal with personal problems that interfere with their vocational training.
>
> *Contingency Management, which involves the use of reinforcements and manipulation of the learning environment to encourage desired behavior. [96]

In his review of Labor Department literature, Walther found that counselors rarely spent much time providing vocational counseling but that job-related counseling nonetheless was more effective than any other type. [97] Counselors, said Walther, should put most of their efforts into activities "specifically related to work." In helping disadvantaged youth set realistic goals, Walther suggested the following counseling priorities:

> *Vocational Information--to learn about various job opportunities
>
> *Vocational Exploration--to explore personal abilities and aspirations
>
> *Job Seeking Skills--to improve personal employability
>
> *Job Application Skills--to improve interviewing, resume and related skills
>
> *Better Understanding of Own Behavior--to learn how attitudes and behavior affect job performance and supervisory ratings

*Career Advancement Skills--to avoid becoming trapped in dead-end jobs and learn the importance of building a solid work reputation

*Helping Youth Resolve Work Problems--to work out problems with supervisors and fellow workers

*Helping Improve Job Performance--specific help in improving job-related weaknesses

*Constructive Use of Assignments--work assignments should be coupled with employability development and be in line with individual abilities and needs. [98]

Garth Mangum and John Walsh cite research on vocational counseling provided at skills centers operated under the Manpower Development and Training Act and conclude that it was the "heart of the skills center operation."[99] Yet the skills center counselors "seldom mentioned vocational guidance as one of their goals or responsibilities," Mangum and Walsh reported. "When asked whether all enrolless were enrolled in the courses most suited to their aptitudes, the majority of counselors admitted frankly that they did not know, and that probably nobody did. The problem seemed to be that the range of occupational offerings was limited, and that most enrollees shared similar characteristics." [100]

The major reasons for the lack of employment counseling, said Mangum and Walsh, were the overall shortage of counselors and the time available to deal with anything other than the behavioral and other problems of participants.

Although it is generally believed that young people should prepare themselves for "realistic" careers, this same supposition has worked to the disservice of thousands of low-income youth (especially minorities) who have been told by counselors and others the only "realistic" choices open to them are in low-skill low-status occupations. That schools track black youths into vocational programs while preparing white youngsters for college is a charge of long-standing. Indeed, blacks to this day often regard vocational education programs as "dumping grounds" for students that school administrators and teachers dub as losers. [101] An ongoing debate within the black community is whether minority youngsters should be training for skilled blue collar jobs (an idealogy fostered by Booker T. Washington and his Tuskegee Institute) or for the more competitive, more demanding professions (a concept professed by W.E.B. DuBois).

Thus, preparing young people for "realistic" careers is not so easy as it sounds at first. The concepts of desire, ambition and motivation have been left out. A recent Temple University study found that highly motivated youth--especially blacks--really do get better jobs at higher pay than their less-motiveated peers. 102/ Said the researchers: "A high priority in this regard is the need to determine at what school level and at what ages these attitudes can be most effectively instilled." They pointed out there is "an important guidance role for families, counselors and suppliers of labor market information to the young." 103/

According to Regis Walther's literature review, "it appears that the best strategy for improving self-confidence is to provide opportunities for success experiences and to help the individual interpret these successes as worthwhile accomplishments. Earning money, completing a task, contributing to a common goal are all possible ways for an individual to experience success . . . It is important, therefore, that he be able to fail without seriously adverse consequences. He needs to be able to start afresh in a new situation on at least several occasions so that he may have a chance to break the vicious cycle of repetitive failures resulting from his conviction that failure is inevitable." 104/

Thus, preparation for "realistic" careers is a two-sided coin. Young people need to learn both their limitations and their potentials and be steered into careers that make the most of their individual assets.

Apprenticeship is a method of preparing youth for realistic careers that has always been more popular in Europe than in the United States. Only during the past five years or so has the federal government made any effort to counteract a steady decline in the number of apprenticeship trainees. The Bureau of Apprenticeship Training, inactive since 1969, was revived in 1975, marking the beginning of a new focus on apprenticeship.

Apprenticeship has a good record of success in training and placing completers into skilled jobs at high pay. According to James Mitchell, workers who go through the apprenticeship system "enjoy greater employment stability, have higher lifetime earnings, and are more successful in advancing beyond the journeyman level." 105/

However, only about 45,000 new journeymen come out of registered apprenticeship programs each year, despite Bureau of Labor Statistics projections that some 400,000 new craftsworkers are needed every year in America. Paul Barton and Bryna Fraser claim that low esteen accorded blue collar work and barriers within the trades themselves are mainly responsible for this disparity. 106/ These barriers include:

*the historical view by labor unions that apprenticeship is a useful regulator of entry into the labor market and a means of controlling and protecting their trade jurisdictions;

*the claim of labor unions, and to some extent employers, that qualification for apprenticeship be geared toward labor market needs, not individual ability;

*the lack of incentives for employers or trainees to participate in apprenticeship programs. 107/

Garth Mangum adds that unions and employers both think that young people--even 18 and 19 year olds--are "too unreliable" to stick with a multi-year apprenticeship program because they lack maturity and clear ideas about their career interests. 108/

Most researchers--even the Department of Labor--are not particularly optimistic about the potential role apprenticeship is likely to play in solving the youth unemployment problem. Says Mangum: "If the extended adolescence of U.S. youth has had an effect on their stability, it is doubtful that apprenticeship will become a viable transitional program for youth, at least during periods when labor markets are slack." 109/

The Labor Department's Office of Youth Programs adds that current apprenticeship programs already are oversubscribed: "The current apprenticeship system appears to be used to capacity in the sense that pre-apprenticeship efforts are already at a scale several times that of entry apprenticeship opportunities for disadvantaged young people. 110/

Nonetheless, many new apprenticeship efforts have begun in recent years aimed at increasing participation of underserved groups such as women, minorities and the disadvantaged. Apprenticeship programs also have been linked with community colleges and military job training. Current examples of innovative apprenticeship programs include the pre-employment training (PET) initiative of the carpenter's union, the performance-based training program of the plasterers and cement masons, and the International Union of Operating Engineers' modular instruction units.

In addition, the Bureau of Apprenticeship training has added some 30 occupations to the list of apprenticeable trades, which now totals 885. Unions, trade schools and community colleges are devising formal training programs for these new occupations.

Among the more innovative apprenticeship efforts are those aimed at preparing women for nontraditional occupations. One example is the CETA-funded Teenage Women in Nontraditional Employment (TWINE) program operated by the Economic Opportunity Board of Clark County, Nevada. Several groups of sixty low-income teenage mothers were taught home renovation and weatherization skills while being prepared for apprenticeship tests. Instruction in basic academic skills and work habits also was provided. A preliminary report on the project showed 200 apprenticeship placements, two referrals to other programs and two "non-positive" terminations. The most serious problem was a lack of in-depth counseling to help overcome the doubts many young women had about their abilities to handle construction jobs. Many women lost interest in construction work when they got first-hand experience with on-the-job conditions, program administrators added. 111/

Such innovative apprenticeship programs still are very rare and it is unclear whether they can be expanded, given current unemployment levels and union protectiveness. At the very least, it appears that apprenticeship is most useful to older teenagers and young adults with a good understanding of their career interests and with the maturity to stay with a program.

Summary

While it is clear that many youth possess unrealistic expectations about career opportunities, these expectations have been shown to change greatly with age and labor market experience. Occupational information appears to be one vehicle useful in helping youth make realistic decisions.

Less clear are the roles expectations and aspirations play in motivating bright youth with few opportunities to achieve success beyond that anticipated by peers and adults. Minorities, especially, are sensitive to the fact that counselors and teachers historically have tended to define "realistic" careers too narrowly.

The literature is fairly pessimistic about the role counselors play in helping young people decide on careers. Vocational counseling in programs for the disadvantaged has been available only sporadically and has been of very uneven quality.

Perhaps the best approach is for counselors, parents, teachers and others to help disadvantaged youth develop self-confidence and understand both their limitations and their potentials.

Apprenticeship does not hold great promise in providing the skills necessary to employ large numbers of disadvantaged youth. Not only is the current system oversubscribed, apprenticeship openings are manipulated by organized labor control the number of new entrants into particular trades and thus help avoid widespread unemployment of adults during economic downturns. The general disdain for blue collar work also contributes to apprenticeship's lack of popularity.

Apprenticeship does, however, hold promise for women and many minorities, who traditionally have found it difficult to enter the skilled trades. Experimental programs under way in several parts of the country have posted some success and these should be encouraged.

What do we not know about preparing youth for "realistic" careers and creating flexible new apprenticeship programs?

Improved occupational information and vocational counseling appear to be the chief weapons in the battle against unrealistic career expectations. Much more must be learned about why vocational counseling has such a poor record. Is it because counselors are poorly trained? Have too many other duties? Know little about the world of work themselves? Cannot relate to the attitudes of low-income youth? Although the failure of counseling is well documented, little is known about what makes it succeed.

Little also is known about the best ways to inspire youth to learn about and live up to their potentials. In many ways, this is the crux of the whole employability problem. It is clear from the literature that self-destructive attitudes, rather than inherent lack of ability, are most harmful to the development of disadvantaged youth. If transportable, well-structured methods can be devised to overcome these attitudinal obstacles, the battle against youth unemployment might take a turn for the better.

Another area in which knowledge is lacking is the impact of efforts such as work experience and career exploration on the career decisions of the young. Although the literature is not hopeful about the possibilities of determining the precise effects of such programs, longitudinal studies using control groups might produce some answers. Many millions of dollars are spent each year on programs designed solely to help young people make career decisions and it is difficult to understand why so little is known about their impact.

In the area of apprenticeship, the biggest gaps in our knowledge are related to the experiences of participants in different age groups and the impact on special groups such as women. If it is really true that most teenagers lack the commitment to succeed in apprenticeship, then money need not be spent encouraging their expanded participation. Too little also is understood about whether programs to prepare females for nontraditional employment succeed and for whom.

IV. WHAT THE LABOR DEPARTMENT'S OFFICE OF YOUTH PROGRAMS HAS LEARNED FROM YEDPA*

As this paper is being written, preliminary findings from dozens of pilot projects funded under YEDPA are beginning to filter into the Office of Youth Programs. According to a summary of these findings published in October 1978 (no specific studies are cited), well-run youth programs do make a difference in the lives of participants, but work opportunities in the private sector remain very limited. Among the report's findings:

*Placement rates into unsubsidized employment under YEDPA are "quite low." In fiscal 1978, less than 20 percent of YETP and YCCIP terminees entered private employment. In 1978, only 3.6 percent of all YETP participants were in private sector on-the-job training. "This is characteristic of all youth programs which serve primarily teenagers."

Preliminary lessons from the Targeted Jobs Tax Credit and the Entitlement program include:

"First and foremost, it is unrealistic to expect high direct placement rates for programs which provide short duration or seasonal and inschool work experience, where participants are selected because of their labor market difficulties, and where funds are concentrated in areas where there are significant private sector job deficits.";

"The impediments are not just red tape nor can they be overcome by 'bribes' to employers";

"Under the Entitlement program, the private sector provided only one in seven needed job opportunities, even at a 100 percent federal subsidy";

"Anecdotal evidence suggests that even the 100 percent subsidy may not cover the costs of supervising the Entitlement youth. There has been no evidence of increased hiring for the sake of subsidies";

"Attempts to reduce (Entitlement) subsidy levels in private sector jobs after participants stayed for a period of time have not been successful. Either the youth are job ready and will be picked up by the employer or they are not, and a reduced subsidy formula creates red tape which discourages continued participation by the employer.";

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*Material in this section is excerpted from Youth Employment Policies and Programs for the 1980s: Analysis and Proposals of the Department of Labor, Office of Youth Programs, October, 1979.

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"There are few replicable packages" that encourage private sector employers to hire CETA youth;

Private sector work experience is not a realistic alternative for younger youth simply because of their age;

"Private employers have a negative perception of CETA youth, so much so that motivated youth are better served by downplaying their program participation so they will not be typecast as a "disadvantaged" individual";

The guaranteed jobs provided under the Entitlement program can "increase opportunities for a disadvantaged clientele. Although the full wage subsidy is not an 'open sesame,' it is a necessary tool if poor students are to gain private sector work experience during their teens."

"Intermediary groups such as 70001 Ltd. and community-based organizations "can provide a continuing and personal linkage to employers, as well as a mechanism for sorting amont disadvantaged youth."

"Some institutional skills centers have established a track record with employers to a large extent by determining the specific competencies they require, then meeting these competencies."

"While OJT is too cumbersome to the employer because it requires payrolling and reimbursement, the tax credit is too general in that it certifies the participant but does not assure the job is a real training or career entry opportunity . . . It should be possible to certify career entry positions and to have a try-out period, which is payrolled without red tape."

"Ties between public sector jobs and the private sector should become more distinct as the jobs become more nearly like permanent adult employment."

Summing up, the Office of Youth Programs report concludes, "Local organized labor and the private sector have been directly involved in the operation of (YEDPA) programs in very few locations. While the projects resulting from their involvement are laudable and should be encouraged, it does not appear that this can become a major element of local programming because of the enormous administrative effort needed to energize and coordinate all the players. The extra effort makes the most sense for career training and entry efforts, where the linkages are needed directly into adult jobs, where more is being invested per individual, and where fewer participants locally are involved.

"The current apprenticeship system appears to be used to capacity in the sense that preapprenticeship efforts are already at a scale several times that of entry apprenticeship opportunities for disadvantaged young people. . . Expansion of apprenticeship opportunities, particularly for low-income youth, would require the introduction of some type of financial incentives for employers."

The report discusses a variety of topics related to issues covered in this paper. It is very unfortunate that the report is not footnoted. It remains, however, an important benchmark.

V. ASSUMPTIONS UNDERLYING POLICY AND PRACTICE THAT ARE JUSTIFIED BY THE RESEARCH FINDINGS--FURTHER RESEARCH NOT OF HIGH PRIORITY

In a field as poorly documented as private sector participation in youth transition programs, one would be hard-pressed to name issue areas in which further research is not needed. Yet, there are several policy practices based on assumptions which are reasonably well documented, and which needn't be "discovered" all over again. First, however, it may be useful to describe current federal policies and practices as they relate to youth programs in general, and private sector participation in particular:

- After several years of "benign neglect," private sector involvement is being given a new push through such efforts as the Private Sector Initiative Program, YEDPA and career education.
- While recognizing that youth unemployment and school-to-work transition problems affect all young people, the government has increasingly targeted education, employment and training programs on the economically disadvantaged.
- Due largely to pressures from organized labor, the federal government has not supported a subminimum wage for teenagers and is not likely to in the near future.
- The CETA bill passed by Congress in 1978 reflects a growing emphasis on job training programs rather than public service employment.
- The government is beginning to experiment with other mechanisms to encourage more youth employment such as the Targeted Jobs Tax Credit, passed in 1978.
- The Carter administration has placed much more emphasis on youth programs run through the Department of Labor than on Office of Education efforts such as career and vocational education.
- Passage of the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act reflects a new willingness by the government to experiment with a variety of approaches to solving the youth unemployment problem.
- Until recently, the federal government has allowed private sector employers to receive subsidies only for the outstanding costs of training the jobless, but now seems more willing

to experiment with more direct incentives such as total wage subsidies.

In general, federal policies and practices reflect these assumptions: (1) Youth unemployment is a serious problem, more so among minorities and the poor. (2) Thus, with limited government resources available, it is best to direct aid at those who need it most. (3) It is not clear which approaches work best, and a one billion dollar a year expenditure is justified over the short-run to find some answers. (4) The private sector should play a strong role in combatting youth unemployment, even though past experiences have shown mixed results. (5) Payment of subminimum wages will not be permitted. (6) Local communities should be encouraged--with federal seed money if necessary--to explore innovative solutions of their own.

How well are these assumptions justified by the available research? Several policy assumptions (such as the fear that employers will lay off their regular workers if wage subsidies for the jobless become available) are moot because there is no evidence to back any particular position at all. Others (such as the effect of economic conditions on the willingness of employers to hire the hard-core jobless) are better documented. Arguments for greater involvement by the private sector in youth programs usually stem not from evidence that business people are better trainers or administrators, but from the fact that four-fifths of all jobs are in business and industry, not in the public sector.

The experimental nature of YEDPA also is based on the recognition that research is lacking on the best ways to tackle the youth employment dilemma. The government can be commended for wanting to find some hard data by funding a sizeable research and development program such as YEDPA. The absence of a knowledge base is reflected as well in experiments with wage subsidies and tax credits, areas in which facts are hard to come by.

On the other hand, research has amply documented the reluctance of employers to get involved in government employment and training programs. Their concerns over high training and supervisory costs, low productivity of young workers, high turnover, red tape and confusing laws and regulations have often been heard.

Thus, the government's efforts to try more direct incentives seem justified. Less justifiable are the government's hopes that more emphasis on job training and private sector participation will be a long-term solution to the youth unemployment issue. Previous research cited in this paper shows a clear connection between the national jobless rate and the willingness of private employers to hire the disadvantaged. As unemployment goes up, so do union objections about the presence of subsidized trainees when older, more experienced workers are being laid off. [56] It is not coincidental that the government began reemphasizing training and private sector participation just as the unemployment rate declined to its lowest level in four years. But government leaders grudgingly admit that more joblessness may result from "tight money" policies being pursued to fight inflation. A substantial boost in unemployment will put government efforts to open new youth training and job opportunities in the private sector to a severe test.

So long as unemployment is at an acceptable level, however, the private sector seems willing to try again to work with disadvantaged youth. Employers are deeply concerned about the low level of work preparedness among the young, declining productivity and quality control and the high costs to the community of youth unemployment.

VI. ASSUMPTIONS UNDERLYING POLICY AND PRACTICE WHICH ARE NOT JUSTIFIED BY THE RESEARCH--FURTHER RESEARCH OF HIGH PRIORITY

It should be clear by now that the research in this field is of widely varying quality. A few of the existing evaluations (notably those on the Career Intern Program and Supported Work) are well-designed. The majority, however, lack key components and thus give no clear indication about the direction public policy should take.

In most cases, it is not necessary to invent new types of programs or ways to measure their success. The need is for a unified perspective applicable to the whole array of demonstration projects. Modern evaluation techniques have grown quite sophisticated. Given enough planning time and money, it should be possible to measure the success of nearly any transition-to-work program with a fair degree of accuracy and in such a way to make comparison useful.

The necessity for a cohesive evaluation framework must be addressed, or there never will be a body of literature strong enough either to confirm or dispute the truth of policy assumptions which have a great deal to do with how billions of federal dollars are spent each year.

Yet there still is much to be learned about private sector involvement in youth programs. These are discussed, by issue area, in Section VII, A Research Agenda for the 1980s.

It is noteworthy that the Department of Labor has at last come to grips with the need for better program evaluation. The special battery of tests developed by the Educational Testing Service and creation of a national control group to help evaluate the effects of YEDPA programs represent a near quantum leap in the federal government's recognition that social programs are of little value unless a unified basic literature about what works and why is created. This kind of systematic, long-range planning has been in desperately short supply and must be encouraged in the future. In years to come, it may be possible to say far more definitively which federal youth policies are supported by evaluation data. The emphasis placed on coordinated evaluation under YEDPA may prove to be its greatest contribution to the resolution of youth unemployment.

VII. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Despite its increasing emphasis, private sector participation in youth transition to work programs is not well documented. Not only is there a paucity of literature, but that which does exist is in no way standardized to make comparisons possible.

While formal evaluations are scarce, an abundance of anecdotal information reveals a variety of seemingly successful youth programs in which private employers play a major role. These programs are startling in their diversity, ranging from in-depth community collaboration to subsidized training to exotic forms of cooperative education.

Research on Labor Department private sector youth programs has been undertaken only sporadically during the last 10 years. Since the time CETA was enacted in 1973, there has been a severe drop-off in the number of such evaluations, due primarily to an emphasis on anti-recession public service employment. Improvement in the national unemployment rate has led to new interest in private sector involvement and on-the-job training.

Research on school-based programs involving the private sector is equally scarce. Two of the most popular types, vocational education and cooperative education, have been studied only occasionally during the previous decade. While research on the private sector's role in vocational education is very sketchy, evidence generally supports the goals of cooperative education, which appears popular with employers and students alike. Despite federal expenditures of $80 million, there is almost no research on the effects of career education.

With the federal government's commitment to greater private sector participation in mind, 10 issues of critical concern emerge from a review of the literature:

> What forms of collaboration among employment, training, private sector employers, educational (including colleges and universities), and rehabilitation institutions (including CBO's) are the most effective and the most successful in facilitating the school-to-work transition sequence? Specifically, what forms of collaboration and what structural arrangements best serve the young people in terms of placing them in private sector, unsubsidized jobs after program completion?

What do we know about the relative effect and value of private sector vs. public sector programmatic experience in terms of skills acquired, later (after program) job placement, career and educational success, and overall (long-term) employability? To what extent does what type of programmatic experience change/alter the impact as a result of the age of the participants?

What do we know about the effectiveness of and measurement of various types of incentives, both monetary and nonmonetary, to increased private sector involvement in youth transition to work efforts?

What do we know about the effectiveness of various kinds and levels of incentives for participants? Specific questions will include: How can job-sharing arrangements be devised between students and other part-time workers?

What do we know of the effectiveness of efforts to reduce institutional barriers (including social, legal, and regulatory costs) to greater private sector involvement in youth school-to-work transition programs?

What do we know about the effectiveness of processes and mechanisms to improve the attitudes of employers and schools, including colleges and universities, community-based organizations, and others toward more joint participation in youth programs?

What do we presently know about the accuracy, fairness, and utility of various criteria used to measure the effectiveness of private sector involvement youth programs, particularly with respect to skills acquisition and transference? What alternative approaches may be considered with what projected outcomes?

What do we know about how private sector work supervisors can be better prepared to supervise youth? How can unions and other individuals and groups, e.g., retired workers, serve as resources to schools to improve youth orientation to the world of work and private sector employment opportunities?

What do we know about how needed support services to in-school youth at private sector jobs can be arranged and provided?

What do we know about how students can be helped to avoid unreal expectations of future employment? What do we know about how new methods and flexible approaches can be developed for youth to learn about and prepare for trades for which there may be apprenticeship?

Little research has been done on any of these issues of concern. There is some evidence that employers respond to traditional incentives such as training subsidies and sources of skilled workers only when the economy is expanding. More direct incentives such as wage subsidies have rarely been tried, mainly because of legal limitations. The history of employment tax credits is mixed and still in dispute, although the new Targeted Jobs Tax Credit appears to have resulted in the hiring of substantial number of youth.

Equally little is known about reducing institutional barriers to greater private sector participation. The research is not even clear whether barriers such as child labor law, bonding and insurance are obstacles in and of themselves, or merely act to confuse employers and thus make them hesitant to get involved.

One of the hottest issues, the impact of the minimum wage, is far from resolved and has resulted in establishment of a federal task force to examine its effects.

The lack of standardized measures is one of the great impediments to assessing the results of private sector youth programs. Although many test instruments exist, they are not used in any coherent way to isolate the factors contributing to program success or failure. Thus, even if a large body of literature existed, it would be nearly impossible to say with any assurance what works and what doesn't. Only when there is agreement on program goals and how to measure them will the situation improve.

Anecdotal evidence suggests that employers are deeply concerned about declining productivity, the poor work preparation of young people and the high costs of youth unemployment. They consistently praise on-the-job training as the best kind of CETA program and have long supported such school-based efforts as cooperative education, distributive education and Junior Achievement.

Very little research has been done on the mechanisms and processes which best facilitate collaboration between schools and employers (exceptions are Wurzburg and Rist, q.v.). The Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act strongly encourages such partnerships and may yield new data. New emphasis on training in the 1978 CETA amendments also may prove useful.

One of the biggest problems is designing evaluations to adequately measure the impact of private sector youth programs. The school-to-work transition is characterized by rapid job changing. Thus the effects of youth programs on future career success may not be readily apparent. In addition, programs which stress rapid job placement may actually do more harm than good by placing youth in jobs that are dead-end, sex stereotyped or not matched to individual aspirations. Evidence suggests that work experience, *per se* is somewhat helpful, but less so for minorities and the disadvantaged, who remain unable to get a "foothold" in the adult labor market.

Because the reserach literature is so spotty, it is difficult to say whether assumptions underlying public policy and practice in the field are misguided or not. It appears, however, that government leaders have recognized this knowledge gap and are making serious efforts to fill it through programs such as YEDPA and career education, both of which have strong evaluation components.

PROGRAM CHARACTERISTICS, YOUTH TRANSITION TO WORK PROGRAMS INVOLVING THE PRIVATE SECTOR

Program	Year Begun/Concluded	Funding	Enrollment	Local Administrative Agency
TAT (MDTA)	1968, ongoing	No national totals available; cost per trainee $2,690	4,000 grads since 1968	Oak Ridge, Tenn. Associated Universities & DOL
Job Corps (CETA)	1964, ongoing	$296 million, FY '78	44,000 slots, FY '79, serving nearly 75,000 enrollees	Job Corps Centers
VEP (CETA)	1972, ongoing	$5 million in FY '78	5,000; FY '78	Local CETA prime sponsors, in cooperation with AFL-CIO and National Alliance of Business
NAB/JOBS (private)	1968, ongoing	No cost to federal government.	231,000 jobs created, 1978	NAB "metro" offices
Operation Young Adults (MDTA)	1972, two year project	$1.7 million	350	Rochester Jobs, Inc., a community-based organization
CETA/OJT (includes YEDPA)	1973; 1977 YEDPA	$1.91 billion, CETA/OJT; $714 million; YEDPA	CETA/OJT, 48,400 FY '79; YEDPA, 336,600, FY '79	Network of 450 prime sponsors--units of state and local government
Supported Work (CETA)	1975, ongoing	(To be supplied.)	1,782 in 21 cities, July 1979	CETA prime sponsors in conjunction with Manpower Demonstration and Research Corp.

INTRODUCTION TO MATRIX

The following matrix summarizes characteristics of 13 school-to-work programs, some privately supported, some school-based and some supported by Labor Department funds. Ongoing and completed programs are included and the list is intended as a representative--not comprehensive--group illustrating a variety of approaches and goals.

Private programs include NAB/JOBS and 70001 Ltd. DOL programs include TAT, Job Corps, VEP, Operation Young Adults, CETA/OJT and Supported Work. School-based programs are career education, vocational education, cooperative education, Career Intern Program, and EBCE.

Because evaluations still are under way, recent efforts operated under the Youth Employment Act are not included.

PROGRAM CHARACTERISTICS, YOUTH TRANSITION TO WORK PROGRAMS INVOLVING THE PRIVATE SECTOR

Program	Year Begun/Concluded	Funding	Enrollment	Local Administrative Agency
Experience-based career education (NIE)	1971 as Office of Education demonstration; ongoing	Approx. $30 million in fiscal 1979, state, local, fed.	Approx. 20,000; all states but Vermont	Local education agencies
Cooperative Education (OE)	No federal support for high school co-op; post secondary 1968, as part of Higher Education Act	No national figures available for secondary co-op programs 2) $15 million postsecondary	2) 200,000 post-secondary, FY '79	Local education agency or postsecondary school
Career Intern Program (NIE)	1972, ongoing	$5 million, FY '78 for program in 4 cities	267 in initial 1972 test in Philadelphia	Opportunities Industrialization Centers of America, Inc.
70001 Ltd. (private)	1969, ongoing	$800,000 DOL contract, plus service fees to franchisers	From 76-79, 8,417 entered program	Local agencies selected to "franchise" the 70001 concept
Vocational Education (OE)	1917 (Smith-Hughes Act)	$674 in FY '79	Annually serves 2,000,000 students	Local vocational education agency
Career Education (OE)	1974 (Special Projects Act) 1977. Career Education Incentive Act, ongoing	$19.5 million, FY '79	Serves students in about 1/3 of nation's 16,000 school list	Local education agency

VIII. A PROPOSED RESEARCH AGENDA FOR THE 1980s

To propose a research agenda on private sector participation in youth transition to work programs is a little like predicting the winner of a political race before all the returns are in--certain trends are apparent, but the final outcome is still in doubt. Since the enactment of YEDPA in 1977, literally hundreds of pilot projects and demonstration programs have been funded at a cost in the hundreds of millions of dollars. YEDPA is a massive social experiment, unique in its emphasis on evaluation. Results from these experiments may change our assumptions about youth programs and what makes them work. New questions undoubtedly will be raised as the old ones are answered. Thus, proposing a research agenda when so much research on this topic is only half-completed is a bit tricky. Nonetheless, there are unanswered questions about each of the 10 issues of significance discussed in this paper. Obtaining answers to these questions should be the aim of future evaluation studies.

1. What forms of collaboration are most effective?

The term collaboration has been loosely applied to a number of efforts in which many organization and individuals work together toward the resolution of school-to-work issues. But the term collaboration is imprecise. Future research studies of its impact must define clearly what collaboration is that it intends to accomplish. Otherwise, researchers are likely to find little measurable impact and conclude that collaboration--about which there are several anecdotal examples of success--is not a useful approach to solving youth employment problems.

Questions to which researchers should address themselves in the future include:

*Is collaboration more effective at the federal, state or local levels?

*What are the most effective roles to be played by collaborating agencies and individuals?

*What is the role of leadership in collaborative efforts and how can it best be encouraged?

*Can collaboration have a measurable impact on local youth employment rates?

*Does collaboration lead to innovative approaches to problems or merely institutionalize the status quo?

*Does collaboration result in more efficient use of federal and local dollars?

*Is an appeal to self-interest the most effective method of encouraging collaboration?

*Does the participation of young people in collaborative activities have any impact?

*To what extent does local political and economic history effect the nature and extent of collaboration?

Other questions could be added to the research agenda. Collaboration may prove very difficult to assess concretely, however, because it is a process dependent mostly on the vagaries of human interaction, not a product that can be isolated and evaluated by itself. To test the impact of local collaboration, it may prove fruitful to select two similar communities, one of which possesses an active collaborative spirit. These two communities could be compared and the effects of collaboration measured. At the federal level, useful measures of collaborative impacts would include whether new or improved services have been made possible and whether the cost-benefit of programs has been increased.

2. Is public or private sector work preparation most useful in preparing young people for the world of work?

Because this is one of the most poorly documented of all the issues addressed in this paper, the research needs are substantial. The Labor Department's current test of public vs. private sector work experience will provide many answers. Until those data are available, however, it is difficult to propose a research agenda that does not duplicate evaluations already under way. Among the most useful information to be sought in these evaluations include the impact of public or private work experience on youth of different ages and backgrounds, the types of work experiences that are most helpful, impact of the size of the firm or organization, and the nature and quality of supervision provided.

3. What are the most effective incentives for private employers?

A variety of incentives has been used to entice private sector employers to participate in work preparation programs. The impact of these has been assessed to varying degrees. We know, for example, that the effectiveness of incentives is tied to the overall health of the economy; that employers are more willing to participate if job trainees are of high quality and if paperwork is kept to a minimum. But we also know that the percentage of private employers involved in work preparation programs historically has been very low and remains so. Even total wage subsidies cannot by themselves overcome the reluctance of employers to hire and train the disadvantaged unless they are severely short of manpower.

Many incentives are relatively new and thus have not been rigorously tested: targeted tax credits, wage subsidies, etc. Evaluations are under way, however, and should bear fruit in the near future.

It is fairly clear from the literature that employers most want productive stable workers and that all the incentives in the world will not be enough to encourage widespread hiring of unproductive, unstable workers. Much more needs to be learned about programs that produce employable individuals who can read, write, work with others, show up on time, and use their time productively. The ready availability of truly job-ready workers probably is the most effective incentive for greater private sector involvement. Existing programs--and there are many examples--could be tested and compared to find out what employability approaches work best and whether these need be coupled with other cash incentives such as training or wage subsidies. Some work in this area already has been done. The overriding need is for a unified perspective and comparable research methods.

4. What kinds of incentives to youth program participants are most effective?

Because work preparation program incentives have in the past been concentrated on employers rather than participants, little is known about what attracts young people the most. The opportunity to earn wages is an obviously important incentive, but its precise importance has never been documented. Among the questions yet to be addressed include:

*What level of wages is necessary to sustain involvement by youth in work preparation programs?

*Do high school dropouts perceive the opportunity to earn a diploma as an incentive to enrollment in a work preparation program?

*To what extent does the opportunity to leave the classroom part-time act as an incentive for in-school youth?

*Must jobs be "meaningful" to attract the sustained interest of youth?

*To what extent does the availability of support services such as job placement and transportation act as an incentive?

*To what extent do family and community pressures and expectations act as incentives or disincentives toward participation in a federal work preparation program?

*To what extent do opportunitites to work in pleasant "high status" environments such as offices and to wear "business clothes" act as incentives or disincentives?

*Are job opportunities in the private sector more attractive to youth than jobs in nonprofit organizations?

*To what extent is the availability of child care an incentive to participate in a work preparation program if it means a temporary decrease in wages?

*To what extent do the attitudes of many disadvantaged youth about the credibility or desirability of enrolling in work preparation programs offset available incentives?

5. What do we know about the effectiveness of efforts to reduce institutional barriers to greater private sector involvement in youth transition to work programs?

These barriers are legion and well-documented. They range from child labor laws to racial discrimination. Needed is more research into the best ways of circumventing or eliminating this array of barriers. There are many anecdotal examples of instances in which school attendance or graduation

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requirements laws have been waived, insurance and bonding provided through membership fees or other subsidies, occupational licensing laws rewritten, transportation provided, attitudes changed and academic skills upgraded. It is up to researchers to document these successes and find common denominators so that these efforts can be replicated.

More is known about the impact of some barriers than others. The effects of child labor and minimum wage laws, for example, are not well understood. Problems with transportation to work sites and with creating jobs during economic downturns are well documented. Controlled experiments are needed to isolate and assess the barriers about which we know little. The impact of race and sex discrimination probably heads the list but is the most difficult to measure. Indeed, attitudinal barriers, whether based on age, race or sex, may prove the most important barriers if researchers are able to pin down their often subtle effects. Overcoming these attitudinal barriers will be a long and complicated process and there is no magic formula for success.

6. How can the attitudes of employers and schools toward more joint participation in youth programs be improved?

So far, the evidence suggests that the most effective way to create more joint participation is to require it, as is done under the Youth Employment and Training Projects. YEDPA evaluations should be able to assess the extent of collaboration between schools and CETA agencies before and after enactment of YEDPA. But there is no requirement in any legislation for the participation of private industry. Indeed, private employers are just barely more active under YEDPA than previous youth initiatives, despite the limited availability of wage subsidies and other experimental incentives. The National Commission on Employment Policy has recommended that employers with government contracts be required to hire a certain percentage of low income people. But the viability of this form of coercion has never been tested.

The literature sheds little light on the effectiveness of other methods to secure joint participation by schools and employers. Cooperative education probably provides the best documentation of such joint actions. In this review, cooperative education has the best track record of nearly all transition-to-work efforts, although its successes are mainly with middle class youngsters.

Evaluations are badly needed on topics such as:

*joint development of custom training by employers and vocational schools

*the relative success of programs jointly developed versus those operated by a single agency

*the impact of barriers such as classroom scheduling and transportation

*school-based job placement agencies

*effects of such collaborative efforts as speakers bureaus, plant tours and career days

*the effectiveness of formal collaborative organizations such as work-education councils and private industry councils

*the role of organized labor in industry/education collaboration

*the role of schools and businesses in local economic development

*overcoming turf battles and provincialism.

7. What do we know about the accuracy, fairness and utility of various criteria used to measure the effectiveness of youth transition to work programs involving the private sector?

One of the clearest lessons to be learned from the available literature is that job placement and retention rates are among the poorest indicators of youth program success. Yet these two factors are used repeatedly, nearly always to the disservice of young people, who wind up looking uncommitted, shiftless and unsure of their goals. This volatility of the youth labor market no doubt is a major source of the negative attitudes toward the young expressed by employers. It represents a clash of expectations that probably has no solution. On the one hand, employers want employees who can quickly become productive and will stay on the job for a reasonable length of time. Youth, on the other hand, generally are hoping to discover their career aspirations and abilities and break out of the dead end jobs that usually are the only entry level opportunities available.

What comes through most clearly in the literature is the need for agreement on the anticipated outcome of work preparation programs and on the

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best ways to measure these outcomes. Studies must assess programs geared for different age and income groups, distinguish between work exploration and job training, and decide what it is they are trying to measure.

It would be very helpful if involvement by the private sector was included in the analysis of data from such long-range studies as the National Longitudinal Survey or the Continuous Longitudinal Manpower Survey. Because the transition from school to work takes many years, only a long-range approach can accurately measure program effects.

8. How can supervisors be better prepared to work with disadvantaged youth? How can unions and other groups and individuals serve as career resources to youth?

On its most basic level, the interaction between a supervisor and a disadvantaged youth is not much different than any supervisor/subordinate relationship. To be successful, both require a certain amount of empathy, good communication, and an understanding of expected performance and behavior. The literature is not helpful in revealing specific ways in which supervisors have been successfully prepared to work with disadvantaged youth. It does not appear necessary, however, to devise programs from the ground up. Training is a multi-billion dollar industry. Supervisory training packages exist in a number of forms. The most promising of these could be tested easily and inexpensively in a variety of settings in which supervisors and low-income youth interact. In addition, much expertise has been accumulated over the years by such organizations as the Job Corps, the National Alliance of Business, Urban League affiliates, Opportunities Industrialization Centers, Chrysler Learning Corp. and others. Studies of the effectiveness of their efforts to train supervisors are almost nonexistent, but could be accomplished systematically.

On this issue, the answers are most likely to be found outside the specialized field of employment and training.

The available literature tells almost nothing about how adults can serve as career resources for young people. Needed are research studies of programs already in operation by work-education councils, chambers of commerce, unions and school systems. The hardest question, of course, will be deciding what it is such resource programs are trying to accomplish. Since the goal of most probably is the broadening of students' career awareness--and not something immediate like job placement--a longitudinal study of career maturity or occupational awareness would likely provide the best data. Researchers should bear in mind that programs designed primarily to bring young people and adults into greater contact must be measured on their own terms, not national priorities such as impact on youth employment. To impose unrealistic expectations on programs with modest goals will surely doom them to failure.

9. How can support services to in-school youth at private sector jobs be arranged and provided?

The necessity for and success of support services can be measured with a fair degree of accuracy if there is a willingness to commit the time and resources to a well-structured controlled experiment. In the past, support services have rarely been singled out for assessment, largely because of the difficulty in isolating their effects on programs with many components. But, given the sufficient resources, useful evaluations of support services can be accomplished. Many programs already exist in which support services play an important role. These can be examined and compared with control groups of in-school youth who do not receive the support services. The biggest obstacles are time and money, not technical expertise.

Some types of support services intuitively appear to be more important than others and should be given priority in research evaluations. These include:

*transportation from the classroom to the worksite;

*child care for the growing number of teenage mothers;

*career counseling;

*remedial academic and employability skills training.

Another source of potentially valuable data on support services is the Targeted Jobs Tax Credit program. It would be useful to test the impact of support services on low-income and cooperative education youth hired under the tax credit program. Rarely do these youth get support services as TJTC hirees and it would be helpful to know whether long-term employability would be enhanced if they were made available.

10. How can students be helped to avoid unreal expectations of future employment? What is known about flexible new apprenticeship programs?

Although it is a fact that many youth have career aspirations that do not match reality, researchers can do a real disservice to low-income or minority youngsters by defining "realistic" career choices at too low a level. It is an attitude that has plagued schools--especially vocational schools--and created self-fulfilling prophesies by tracking disadvantaged students into unnecessarily narrow career paths. Studies have shown that young people with high aspirations tend to get better jobs and earn higher wages. While not everyone can be a superstar, well-meaning but misguided efforts that snuff out hope and destroy dreams in the name of "realistic" career choices do more harm than good.

Thus, it is incumbant upon researchers to make clear what "realistic" career choices are and to seek those programs that strike a balance: instilling in youth the desire to make the most of their potentials while helping them face their individual strengths and weaknesses.

Because counselors play such a key role in federally funded work preparation programs, more needs to be discovered about why their track record is so poor. The literature is quite pessimistic overall and vocational counseling is seen as a potentially significant but haphazardly provided service. Seemingly successful programs must be sought out and common denominators discovered. Questions that need to be answered include:

*What is the optimum ratio of counselors to counselees?

*What role does work experience play in helping youth make realistic career decisions?

*How realistic is the career advice provided by a youth's peers, family and friends?

*What alternatives to paper and pencil tests can help youths assess their career interests and aptitudes?

*What are the best ways of helping youth with histories of failure gain the self-confidence to set higher career goals?

*What forms of occupational information are most useful to youth?

Although apprenticeship continues to enjoy wide support in Europe, it is not a widely used form of work preparation in America, despite efforts by the federal government during the past several years to promote it. It appears that younger youth--those under age 18--are considered too unstable to commit themselves to several years' apprenticeship, mainly because they lack knowledge about careers and have not assessed their own interests and aspirations. While apprenticeable trades tend to pay well, it probably is a mistake to push young people into them at too early an age. Thus, apprenticeship programs will continue to have the most success with young people aged 19-24.

Several efforts that combine apprenticeship with schooling or military service deserve closer attention. The Armed Forces recently began offering apprenticeship credits for completion of certain job skills training. How many completers become apprentices after leaving the military? Many community colleges have forged linkages with union-sponsored apprenticeship pprograms and offer young people opportunities to combine academic with job training. These programs should be examined more closely. In addition, researchers should examine trends in the training and placement rates of the 30 or so occupations that have been added by the Labor Department to the list of apprenticeable trades.

Worth, too, of further examination are apprenticeship programs such as the TWINE effort in Las Vegas designed to prepare women for nontraditional occupations. Many such programs exist but have met with only limited success. More needs to be learned as well about programs that shorten training time and grant credits for previous work experience.

Summary

In reviewing past evaluation efforts and assessing future research possibilities, it is clear that the greatest need has been and remains a conceptual framework in which program results can be assessed and compared. Historically, the emphasis always has been on program operation: numbers enrolled, percentage of terminations, costs per participant. Evaluation, when it has been attempted at all, often takes a back seat. Even those programs containing strong evaluation components rarely are viewed as part of a broader attempt to build a storehouse of knowledge that can be tapped when new initiatives are being developed. As a result, a systematic knowledge base never has been developed in the field of youth transition to work programs and many valuable lessons have slipped between the cracks.

The Department of Labor's massive efforts to make YEDPA experiments yield comparable data are commendable and worthy of further study. If it resulted in nothing more than a comprehensive evaluation model and a state-of-the-art knowledge base, YEDPA would have to be judged a success.

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OVERVIEW

Vogel, Anita S., A Restrospective Survey of Programs for Youth Employment in the Private Sector Sponsored by the U.S. Department of Labor, Corporation for Public/Private Ventures, 1978.

After reviewing 20 years of literature regarding efforts by the U.S. Department of Labor to place young people in private sector jobs, Vogel discovers that "little hard data exist" and that "we don't know what works," mainly because the problems involved are too complex to yield easy answers. Among her conclusions: 1) programs emphasizing work attitudes and habits are not particularly useful; 2) specific job skills programs are useful only in that minority of jobs that require formal training; 3) youth jobs must have some real content to be useful; 4) the Job Corps is most effective in orienting low income youth to the world of work; 5) programs have a better chance of succeeding if they provide training for which there are manpower shortages; 6) job placements are heavily influenced by the overall health of the economy; 7) on the job training can be very effective if properly set up; 8) incentives to employers to hire low income youth have had mixed success and are not well documented; 9) barriers to the hiring of youth such as bonding requirements are serious but can be overcome.

OVERVIEW

Walther, Regis H., Analysis and Synthesis of DOL Experience in Youth Transition to Work Programs, Manpower Research Projects, Inc., 1976.

Walther analyzed research data from DOL youth barriers to successful adjustment by youth to the labor market are: lack of realistic opportunities; lack of occupational information; lack of appropriate skills and knowledge; and lack of confidence in ability to succeed. DOL programs to overcome these barriers have been only fitfully successful. The

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OVERVIEW

Mangum, Garth and Walsh, John, Employment and Training Programs for Youth: What Works Best for Whom? National Council on Employment Policy, 1978.

Mangum and Walsh reviewed the available literature on youth employment and training programs and attempted to define which approaches are most effective with youth of different ages and economic backgrounds. Concluding that a rereading of the literature is "not an encouraging exercise" because of the paucity of effective programs, Mangum and Walsh list several lessons learned so far: outreach is an overrated service and by now all disadvantaged groups know about the availability of employment services; there are no really satisfactory ways to assess applicants, but assessment is necessary so long as there are more eligibles than openings and if a variety of services is available; work experience without various kinds of program enrichment is ineffective; public service employment and subsidized private sector employment are the most effective of all approaches in enhancing employability so long as the jobs are well-designed and supported; counseling is useful if it emphasizes employability; teaching job search skills is very worthwhile. Even if programs all are well designed, however, youth unemployment will remain high because of the long period in which youth make their break from the classroom and eventually gain footholds in the labor market, Mangum and Walsh conclude.

EMPLOYER INCENTIVES
PUBLIC VS. PRIVATE SECTOR WORK EXPERIENCE

Sprengel, Donald P., et. al., Youth Training in the Private Sector: A Model for Implementation, Center for Urban Programs, St. Louis University, 1974.

Sprengel and associates monitored implementation of the initial Vocational Exploration Program (VEPS) and developed a model for implementation. They concluded that low income youth can profit from work experiences of up to 1,000 hours at a single private sector worksite so long as they are rotated to a different work and training experience after 500 hours. Employers were found willing to split the cost of participant wages evenly with the federal government. The researchers also documented slight improvements in school dropout rates; improvements in academic standing; slight improvements in school attendance; good retention rates by employers of VEPS enrollees; a smoothing of the school-to-work transition for nearly 90 percent of participants.

EMPLOYER INCENTIVES
SUPERVISOR PREPARATION

Greenleigh Associates, Inc., The Job Opportunities in the Business Sector Program, Greenleigh Associates, Inc., 1970.

Researchers assessed the first years of the JOBS program, operated by the National Alliance of Businessmen. The goal was to hire and train low-income individuals, a substantial percentage of whom were young people. No federal subsidies were available to employers. The researchers found there were problems in publicizing the JOBS program; that the impact on unemployment during an economic slump was negligible; that most jobs were dead end. Employers said the low income hirees made little economic impact on their businesses or production but did not have worse work habits than their regular employees. The most successful of the JOBS worksites provided supplemental job coaching and supportive services, including human relations training.

EMPLOYER INCENTIVES

Perloff, Jerfrey M., Youth Wage Subsidies: The Literature and New Experiments, Corporation for Public/Private Ventures, 1977.

Perloff, in an assessment of the impact of wage subsidies on youth employment, criticizes past research on a number of issues: control groups, the effects of time, failure to distinguish between wage and employment effects, unusual measures, etc. In his estimation, the costs of the National Alliance of Businessmen JOBS program "probably outweighed benefits." Employment Tax Credits, on the other hand, must be tested more rigorously to find out which firms respond and why. Perloff suggests a number of new experiments: providing teenage workers with vouchers that only certain firms could cash in; testing the impact of training within specific occupations; assessing the impact of unionization and minimum wages on teenage hiring; and long-term studies.

EMPLOYER INCENTIVES
COLLABORATION, FACILITATION OF
PARTICIPANT INCENTIVES

Ball, Joseph, et. al., The Youth Entitlement Demonstration: An Interim Report on Program Implementation, Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation, 1979.

Researchers examined the implementation of the Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects (YIEPP) during its first few months of existence. Created in 1977, YIEPP was a Labor Department effort to test the effectiveness of a guaranteed job as an incentive for high school dropouts to return to school or to keep potential dropouts from leaving. A unique aspect was a 100 percent federal wage subsidy to private sector employers who provided the guaranteed jobs. Evaluation of the 17 project sites revealed the job guarantee was not particularly effective in luring the dropouts back to school. Although there were adequate numbers of jobs created, those in the private sector were only a small percentage of the total and there were problems scheduling work and classroom hours. But there were indications that many youth stayed in school because of the guaranteed jobs. The researchers concluded that many questions remain but that the "preliminary judgment is that Entitlement is feasible in reaching and employing large numbers of eligibles."

COLLABORATION, FACILITATION OF AVOIDING UNREAL CAREER EXPECTATIONS

Herron, Marshall, et. al., Employer-Based Career Education, FY 73 Evaluation Report, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1973.

Assessed was the Employer-Based Career Education Program in Tigard, Ore., a pilot project funded by the National Institute of Education. The 29 students who participated completed eight employer site explorations, spent 108 days in learning experiences at three employer sites, were tutored in two skills and received many hours of independent study, seminars and counseling. Tests showed the students remained about the same in basic skills and self-concepts, but reached levels of competence in a number of "survival" skills and improved their writing mastery. Seniors reached a high level of career maturity and employers said participants were enthusiastic and competent workers. Concludes the study: "All those involved were enthusiastic about the program."

COLLABORATION, FACILITATION OF

Wurzburg, Gregory, Improving Job Opportunities for Youth: A Review of Prime Sponsor Experience in Implementing the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act, National Council on Employment Policy, 1979.

Ten case studies were examined in this assessment of the first months of implementation of YEDPA, a one billion dollar per year effort to discover causes and cures of youth unemployment. In general, Wurzburg found that thousands of employment and training opportunities had been created, but not without a great deal of stress and strain within the CETA system. New relationships between CETA offices, schools, employers and community-based organizations are being forged and several innovative programs have begun. However, despite the efforts of CETA prime sponsors, the private sector has not responded well to the call; nor, according to Wurzburg, "does there seem to be much promise for any breakthrough . . ." There are scattered examples of good programs involving the private sector, but the connections between CETA and private employers "still have a long way to go." Reasons include red tape, legal barriers such as child labor laws and insurance regulations, the tight labor market and biased attitudes by employers and public officials alike. Wurzburg concludes that prime sponsors must get more encouragement from the Labor Department to involve the private sector and to evaluate job slot development plans in terms of "how much of what is learned in a certain job is transferrable to private sector employment."

COLLABORATION, FACILITATION OF AVOIDING UNREAL CAREER EXPECTATIONS

Frankel, Steven M., Executive Summary: An Assessment of School-Supervised Work-Education Programs, Systems Development Corporation, 1973.

Fifty high school cooperative education programs were examined and found to be generally successful. More than any other kind of in-school program, cooperative education was judged to provide students with job-related instruction; have a followup program for graduates; have an advisory committee; provide job placement services; have a high rate of job-related placements; provide students with jobs that offer on-the-job training; help students in deciding on a career; provide students with jobs that fit into their career plans; provide jobs with high levels of responsibility; and provide inherently satisfying jobs. On the other hand, students with poor attitudes were discriminated against and cooperative education was found not to be particularly effective in reducing absenteeism. It also interfered with other activities such as schoolwork and sports. Frankel concludes, however, that "the overall picture is a very positive one."

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AVOIDING UNREAL CAREER EXPECTATIONS

COLLABORATION, FACILITATION OF

Stromsdorfer, Ernst W., and Fackler, James S., An Economic and Institutional Analysis of the Cooperative Vocational Education Program in Dayton, Ohio, Department of Economics, Indiana University, 1973.

The researchers examined the characteristics and program experiences of students in Dayton's well-established cooperative education program along with a control group of non-participating students. They discovered several difficulties in pinpointing the precise effects of the program and cautioned against generalizing too far with the data. Dayton, said the researchers, is a prosperous mid-Western city with conservative values and a homogenous population, so is not indicative of the nation as a whole. Nonetheless, several positive outcomes of the co-op program were noted: participants earned considerably higher wages during their high school years than non-participants; participants were "far happier" with the relevance of their high school education than were nonparticipants; participants experienced fewer months of unemployment during summer vacations and after graduation and earned higher wages; and participants had a higher probability of graduating from high school than students in either the vocational education or general track, but slightly less probability than the "academic" students. On the other hand, the co-op program students had slightly lower grades overall than other students, possibly because time at work cut into time available for study. Overall, the researchers concluded that the co-op program did have "favorable labor market effects, probably because of the emphasis on vocational education and because impact was measured in the years right after graduation.

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COLLABORATION, FACILITATION OF

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With more than 61,000 secondary school students enrolled in cooperative education or work-study programs, Massachusetts is one of the leading states in its attempts to smooth the school to work transition. The researchers assessed both paid and unpaid work experience programs, including co-op, work-study, career exploration, internships and other initiatives. Most of the participants were female, mainly because most jobs available were in clerical and food-service occupations. Placements for males were harder to come by, largely because of union objections. Few employers offered formal training. Most employers felt they got along well with school personnel and said they would have hired more students but had too few supervisors. College-bound students were more likely to be in unpaid "professional" internships. Few students saw their work experience as a way to learn a trade, but as a way to get out of school, earn some money and test their career interests. The program never has been formally evaluated, a need the researchers said was "sorely felt." Nonetheless, the work experience program appears popular and is continuing.

AVOIDING UNREAL CAREER EXPECTATIONS
COLLABORATION, FACILITATION OF

Gibboney Associates, Inc., The Career Intern Program: Final Report on an Experiment in Career Education that Worked, National Institute of Education, 1977.

Over 400 students participated in the Career Intern Program experiment in Philadelphia, which provided an "alternative" high school for students who had trouble coping with the regular public school system. The program was designed by Opportunities Industrialization Centers of America, Inc. and funded by the National Institute of Education. One component of the city's comprehensive Urban Career Education Center, the Career Intern Program enrolled some 250 students per year at a special school where they worked on academic subjects at their own pace. Each participant also helped work out a Career Development Plan that fit his or her own interest and aptitudes. Students in their last semesters were placed in hands-on work experience situations with private sector employers. Each participant went through two hands-on work experiences. To measure the program's impact, participants and a control group were compared. Some 33 percent of CIP interns eventually dropped out of school, compared with 86 percent of the controls. Nine months after the program began, almost two-thirds of the original enrollees were still in school or had graduated, compared with 15 percent of the controls. However, reading, writing and math scores remained below national averages for the controls and CIP interns, although the interns' scores were improved. Interns were more knowledgeable about their career interests, however, and had better estimates of their self-worth.

PREPARING SUPERVISORS TO WORK WITH YOUTH
COLLABORATION, FACILITATION OF

Davis, Mary F., A Model for Training the Disadvantaged: TAT at Oak Ridge, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, 1973.

Davis examined the initial results of the Training and Technology (TAT) program, originally funded by the Labor Department but now supported entirely with state, local and private money. Begun in 1968, TAT managed to place some 90 percent of its first 2,000 graduates--more than two-thirds of whom were aged 22 and under--into private sector jobs. An unusual feature of TAT is that trainees must move from their hometowns to the Oak Ridge, Tennessee area where there are shortages of manpower needed to fill high paying, high skill jobs. The program design itself is largely responsible for TAT's success, however, Davis says. These elements include: instructors who are experienced craftsmen; a constant emphasis on job development and placement; "rigorous . . . lengthy . . . flexible and individualized instruction"; provision of remedial academic instruction; close relationships between staff members and employers; comprehensive support services; union and community support; strong management that frees trainers to concentrate on training. TAT still exists and has been "bought into" by local schools, Standard Oil of Indiana, the Work Incentive (WIN) program and other agencies and corporations.

APPENDIX

SELECTED DESCRIPTIVE AND ANECDOTAL MATERIALS

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23. Shimberg, Benjamin, *Improving Occupational Regulation*, Educational Testing Service, 1976.

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APPENDIX

SOURCES AND CONTACTS FOR INFORMATION PRESENTED IN THIS REPORT

Data bases and Libraries:

1. Educational Resources Information Clearinghouse (ERIC) for vocational and career education, Ohio State University.
2. Employment and Training Administration Clearinghouse, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.
3. Office of Youth Programs Library, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.
4. "ORBIT" comprehensive computerized data base, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.
5. National Institute of Education Library, Washington, D.C.
6. National Manpower Institute Library, Washington, D.C.

Organizations:

1. American Vocational Association, Washington, D.C.
2. National Alliance of Business, Washington, D.C.
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4. U.S. Chamber of Commerce, Washington, D.C.

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REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE:
HIGH RISK YOUTH

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INTRODUCTION

The Opportunities Academy of Management Training, Inc. (OAMT) has conducted a literature review on the subject of employment and training services for high-risk youth.

This review of the literature on services for high-risk youth will be incorporated into recommendations for future programs offering employment and training services. The review encompassed the activities listed below, focusing on the relevant policy issues.

- Conducting an ERIC search of literature in the appropriate focus area;

- Review of appropriate literature and research material available at the Department of Labor;

- Compilation of a comprehensive bibliography of all collected sources and citations;

- The literature will be examined and the most useful material selected for inclusion in and the construction of an annotated bibliography;

- There will be an interpretive narrative and analysis coalescing what is known within the focus area about each policy issue around which the literature review shall be focused;

- The final step shall be the identification of next steps or research strategies which Youthwork should engage in to answer the knowledge development gaps which current research and projects noted earlier leave unanswered.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Programs designed to respond to the complex needs of unemployed youth can be traced back to the Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Offenses Control Act of 1961. This marked the beginning of efforts to focus on youth unemployment as a problem of social concern and national import.

In 1962 the Manpower Development and Training Act was passed with an emphasis on retraining workers displaced by automation. The 1963 amendments to the legislation focused on disadvantaged youth and a multitude of Experimental and Demonstration Projects were subsequently funded to meet the employment needs of this population. Also in 1963 a new Vocational Education Act was passed broadening the definition of vocational education and providing funds for part-time employment.

The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (EOA) drew the lines of battle for the "War on Poverty." For youth, the weapons to be used were employment-related. The EOA established the Job Corps as a residential job training and education program to serve hard core disadvantaged youth. This program continues today, presently authorized under CETA legislation. Included in the EOA was a Work Training Program for youth which became the Neighborhood Youth Corps. Models were developed to serve those in school (prevent drop-outs) as well as those who had already dropped out.

While the Economic Opportunity Act programs continued through the sixties and into the seventies, changes in the administering agencies were made, and the focus moved from centralization and categorization to decentralization and decategorization.

In 1973, the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) was adopted finalizing the decentralization process by giving local prime sponsors control over the distribution of employment and training funds in their areas. Title IV of CETA continued the Job Corps, but other programs to serve youth were to be adopted at the local level. In 1977, the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Acts was passed.

Under the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act (YEDPA), an array of programs and demonstration activities has been funded as a response to the diverse needs of unemployed youth. Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Projects (YCCIP) seek to employ jobless 16-19 year-olds in well supervised work projects providing tangible products of benefit to the community. The Young Adult Conservation Corps (YACC) is a year-round program providing unemployed, out-of-school youth, ages 16 through 23, an opportunity to work on conservation and other environmental projects to maintain and improve public parks, forests and recreational areas. Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects (YIEPP) guarantee a job and/or training for all economically disadvantaged 16 to 19 year-olds who are already in school or plan to return to school. The Youth Employment and Training Program (YETP) concentrates on both in-school and out-of-school youth, with an emphasis on linking education and work. In addition, Job Corps and the Summer Program for Economically Disadvantaged Youth (SPEDY) have been maintained and revitalized as efforts to address all dimensions of the youth employment proglem.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The phrase high-risk is relatively new to the literature. For the most part, early literature includes information on the effectiveness of specialized service for exclusive groups, i.e. adjudicated youth, drug abusers, high school dropouts etc. Few examples can be found that deal specifically with the high-risk youth as a sub-group of the larger youth population.

Most recent literature has included the phrase high-risk as a descriptor, however, a degree of ambiguity is evident in the multiplicity of definitions the phrase carries. The lack of a set definition was a factor in the isolation of information relative to this specialized group. Programs generally have been developed to serve categories of youth that might fit one definition of high-risk youth and not another.

For the purposes of this review, the following description of high-risk youth was used. The term high-risk, as stated by Youthwork, Inc., encompasses "long-term unemployed youth, teenage parents, ex-juvenile justice offenders, youth with a history of drug or alcohol abuse and high school dropouts."

Youthwork continued by adding that "young people classified as high-risk, regardless of the (sub) group they may be a part of, share not only their predictably dismal employment prospects but also the effects of shortages for teenage work experiences that might serve as a stepping stone for future employment."

The literature review focused on an examination of information related to the following list of policy issues.

Policy Area #1

What forms of collaboration among employment, training, educational (including colleges and universities) and rehabilitation institutions (including CBO's*) are the most effective and the most successful in facilitating the school-to-work transition sequence? Specifically, what forms of collaboration and what structural arrangements best serve the young people in terms of placing them in private sector, unsubsidized jobs after program completion? *(and churches, families and community groups)

Policy Area #2

What do we know about the relative effect and value of private sector vs. public sector job placement/experience in terms of skills acquired, later (after program) job placement, career and educational success and overall long-term employability? To what extent does what type of placement change/alter the impact as a result of the age of the participants?

Policy Area #3

What do we know about how to identify and target high-risk populations of young people*? Once identified, how do we effectively attract and involve hard-to-reach young people in programs designed to deliver services to them? *(at what age)

Policy Area #4

What do we know about creating and inducing access to services and programs and ways of measuring and determining access contrasted with testing which usually precludes opportunities for involvement? (The intent of this question is to determine if there are other means which meaningfully induce and encourage access to services and programs rather than testing which is often used as a mechanism for precluding individuals from accessing programs and services.)

Policy Area #5

What do we know about how programs can be structured to mirror real world choices so that participants will understand the consequences of their involvement with the program? (The intent of this question is to determine the extent to which programs accurately reflect real world choices which participants will be faced with when they leave the program. A secondary intent is to insure that they appreciate the long-run consequences of program participation.)

Policy Area #6

What do we know about how the multitude of individualized planning and assessment plans lead to in-school individualized education plans; do these plans incorporate specific vocational planning objectives? (The intent of this item is to describe the various IEP's and how they are used to develop individualized education plans for high risk young people so we can know what services they are receiving and what kind of progress is being made.)

Policy Area #7

What do we know about how training and/or work experience can be designed to improve the perceived attitudes of program participants, particularly with respect to motivation, jobseeking skills attitudes, and work-relevant attitudes? (The intent here is to determine the extent to which we can determine whether or not there are other ways of assessing and improving upon the impact of training and work programs on the attitudes and perceptions of program participants. The overall intent would be to focus in on the impact of the programs on these characteristics of program participants.)

PROCESS OF REVIEW

The literature review began with a search for the publications most appropriate to study. Several computer-based literature searches were conducted to obtain listings on the topic being studied. The computer bases searched are listed below:

Comprehensive Dissertations Abstracts
INFORM
National Technical Information Service (NTIS)
Public Affairs Information Service International (PAIS)
Social Scisearch
Sociological Abstracts
Research and Information Services for Education
Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)

SEARCH TOPIC

Employment and Training Programs which serve high-risk youth.

KEYWORDS

Youth Employment and Training
Youth Legislation
Youth Unemployment
Job Corps
Youth Program Assessments
Youth motivation
Youth attitudes toward work
Youth attitudes toward job-seeking
Identification and recruitment of high-risk youth
Individualized vocational education plans
Use of Advisory Boards in youth programs
Youth skill training programs
Youthwork experience programs
Youth on the job training programs
Youth and career education
Job placement and follow-up
School-to-work transition
Successful model of youth programs for job placement
Public sector vs./private sector job placement
Relationship of age to placement success
Recruitment methods
Career education

Publications and additional information were acquired from the following sources:

Research and Information Services for Education
U.S. Department of Labor Library
ETA Resource Center, Region III
Free Library of Philadelphia
Temple University Library

Further information was obtained in discussion with many individuals involved in youth employment and training programs. These include:

Youthwork, Inc.	Saul Barry Wax
Office of Youth Programs, DOL -	Lauren Kaminsky Jayne Seidman Frank Slobig Pam Clark Evelyn Ganzglass

Office of Planning, Evaluation and Research, DOL	Harry Lieberman
DOL Library	Nancy Courier Peg Harper Sara Elliott
ETA Resource Center, Region III -	Janet Wolverton
Corpoeation for Public/ Private Ventures	May Long Adina Newberg
Philadelphia Private Industry Council	Elaine L. Simon

CHAPTER ONE

Collaborative Arrangements in the School to Work Transition

The diversity within the youth population and the concomitant needs and programs of this specialized group are many.

> The youth who is in school needs a part-time or summer job and some information about the labor market in order to continue in school and be prepared for work as an adult; the dropout who has failed in or been failed by the education system and is ready to try again needs a second chance; youths who graduate but can't latch onto a job with any future require aid in mounting career ladders; dropouts who are unsure about their futures may simply need work to tide them over until age brings greater maturity or labor market opportunity.1

Local governments, Community Based Organizations (CBOs), Local Education Agencies (LEAs) and others have chosen in-school and out-of-school approaches, mixes of services and delivery agents to meet local needs.[2] As a result, efforts to combine formal education and work experiences and efforts at linking CETA and schools with the private sector have emerged.

According to Walther (1976),[3] pointing to "mixed results" from DOL sponsored projects for youth over two decades, "promising results were achieved in particular places during specific periods of time, but these successes have typically not been enduring, have not been transportable to other settings, or have been limited to specific client populations." Vogel, (1978)[4] adds, "In considering various program models, it is important to recognize that what works in one particular place at one specific time should not be expected ipso facto to be transportable to other settings or to other populations."

According to Foat and Stromquist (1979,[5] several institutional arrangements have been utilized in efforts designed to facilitate the school-to-work transition process. Collaborative relationships have been established among employment, training, educational and rehabilitation institutions. Three different institutional arrangements were tried during the implementation of recent (1977) DOL sponsored programs: an alternative educational delivery agency run by a CBO, an approach based on broad community/business participation, and the predominant utilization of the existing manpower agencies and other government units. In addition, the literature provides examples of programs that were multi-funded (CETA, OE, Private Employers, LEA and local governments).

Many programs do not fit easily into one collaborative arrangement model. Attempts to respond to community needs and climates have led to "improved coordination, more meaningful school and work arrangements, and increased experimentation and innovation."[6]

The information presented here focuses on a review of programs designed for the high-risk youth population that have identified in their descriptions elements of collaboration. The reader should be alerted that these "elements" often come as a listing of the organizations/agencies/institutions involved in the administration, implementation and funding of the programs reviewed. For the most part, little is found in the literature that details the collaborative processes. Given this, the programs selected for inclusion in this chapter will be discussed by presenting program information which may suggest the processes of collaboration and the factors which might contribute to their effectiveness.

Information on the programs selected for review will include, wherever possible, the following:

Collaborative/institutional arrangement
Funding source(s)
Administrative arrangement(s)
Program target population
Program goals/objectives
Evaluation/assessment findings

The first set of programs to be described reflect the institutional arrangement based on broad community/business participation. Barton & Fraser (1968)[7] cite the Vocational Exploration Program (VEP) as a pilot education program for disadvantaged youth. The program allowed students to have exposure to various career options in the private sector during the summer of 1976.

A modified and expanded project was conducted in the summer of 1977. VEP was co-sponsored by the National Alliance of Businessmen (NAB) and the AFL-CIO Human Resource Development Institute (HRDI). The program ran for 4 weeks and served 120 students. Some students performed "actual work," whereas others were limited to observation. Findings from a report by Irving Lipkowitz on the VEP state that students, their parents and the program coordinators expressed preponderantly favorable reaction to the program. The most serious shortcoming of the 4-week program was too little work.

According to Barton & Fraser, (1978)[8] the Job Opportunities in the Business Sector Program (JOBS), a nationwide effort was built on a commitment by local business communities to hire and train the hardcore disadvantaged unemployed including high-risk youth. The program was intended to:

- enable contracting companies to provide immediate employment at regular wages for the hard-core unemployed workers identified by the government, coupled with training and supportive services;
- provide payments to companies to cover the extra cost of furnishing basic education, transportation services, corrective health services, counseling, etc;
- provide employment for persons who would be less qualified than those usually hired by the contracting employer. These persons would need more training than the typical employee;
- emphasize upgrading present employees caught in low-wage dead-end jobs to higher-level positions in addition to hiring unskilled disadvantaged workers for entry-level jobs.9

The collaborative arrangements consisted of the National Alliance of Businessmen, DOL Regional Manpower Administrator's offices, local public and private organizations and local companies.

The Greenleigh Associates, Inc. performed a study to assess the impact of the JOBS program. Among the findings stated, relative to high-risk youth, were the following:

- The JOBS program in ten SMSA's had little impact upon the statistical number of the unemployed.

- An appreciable number of local employee groups have been sensitized to the needs of disadvantaged youth through the JOBS program.

- The JOBS program has not developed effective linkages with other manpower programs, education systems, and health and social welfare organizations. The program, overall, has not developed the capability to provide effectively the full range of support services needed by trainees.10

Another example of a broad community/business approach as cited by Sockol and McClain (1978), is the Tri-lateral Council of Quality Education, Inc.[11] It consists of the Greater Boston Chamber of Commerce, the Boston School Department and the National Alliance of Businessmen. This collaborative effort emphasized the one-to-one relationship of a major company or governmental agency and a local high school. Through this mechanism, business experience, resources and personnel could be channeled to improve the value and quality of education within the public schools. As described by Sockol, the concrete advantages include:

(1) A feeling of ownership - the businesses are more willing to commit themselves to the needs of their respective partner schools;

(2) Because of their strong commitments, businesses are willing to contribute personnel, expertise and other useful resources to their partner schools;

(3) Because of the designed close proximity to the schools, students and faculty can more easily identify with their partner businesses; and

(4) Because of the consistency of contacts between institutions, confusion and waste are kept to a minimum.12

Sockol and McClain continued by listing ways in which monies allocated by the Boston business partners involved in this project have supported appropriate school activities. The list includes the following:

(1) Scholarship funds
(2) Apprenticeship training programs for students
(3) Part-time, after-school jobs for students
(4) Full-time summer jobs for students
(5) Summer internships for teachers and guidance personnel
(6) Special grants to cover the costs of experimental programs.13

As reported by the Federal Interagency Committee on Education, Sub-committee on Education and Work (1976),[14] the Project 70,001 is another example of the community/business collaborative arrangement. It was founded by the Thom McAn Shoe Company and is now a national organization promoted by the Distributive Education Clubs of America (DECA). The Delaware program, spotlighted here, is primarily funded by the Vocational Education Act (disadvantaged set-aside) and CETA. The program is targeted to school dropouts, or "early leavers." Enrollees receive full-time work experience jobs in the distributive education field and attend General Equivalency Development (GED) instruction.

Two problems arising from the aforementioned collaborative arrangement have been in the areas of obtaining sufficient funds and securing program approval. According to the sub-committee report, "Local CETA did not look kindly on the Wilmington Schools and therefore, was not anxious to fund any project under the administration of the school system."[12] Evantually, CETA funds were obtained through the State Education Department. Technical assistance was provided by the National 70,001 organization and additional funds and in-kind assistance were received from Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act, the Wilmington Downtown Businessmen's Association, and Opportunities Industrialization Centers (OIC).

During 1976, the program served 88 enrollees, half of whom were members of minority groups. Sixty-eight enrollees completed their courses; 20 dropped out. There were no figures available on placement rates, although all 88 enrollees were placed in work experience distributive education jobs while they were in the program.

The U.S. Department of Labor, the National Alliance of Businessmen (NAB), and the Office of Education of HEW co-operated in the development and demonstration of a full-year pilot program "Vocational Exploration in the Private Sector" (VEPS) for Neighborhood Youth Corps in-school youth. The time frame of the experimental program was June 1, 1971 to June 30, 1972.[15]

VEPS program goals were to:

- reduce high school dropout rates;
- reduce the flow of untrained, unskilled youth into the labor market; and
- provide enrollees with the widest possible exposure to the world of work.

A study was made to determine the extent to which the VEPS-I program attained its several objectives. Although research hypotheses are not explicitly stated in the longitudinal impact assessment report, several key hypotheses can be deduced from the test. The VEPS emphasis on intensive counseling coupled with paid work exploration and work experience would have positive impact on:

- academic indicators such as grade point average and attendance patterns;
- graduation rates (and negative impact on dropout rates); and
- employability of youth upon graduation

The general conclusion was that:

> the VEPS program proved to be an effective, significant, and lasting experience for the youth who completed the program, resulted in significant improvement in academic performance and attendance in school, and contributed significantly to the ability of the VEP-I youth to obtain full-time employment upon graduation from high school.16

Programs designed on an institutional collaborative arrangement utilizing, predominantly, the existing manpower agencies and other government units, will be the next set to be described.

The Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation Supported Work Project is a collaborative undertaking which involved: M.D.R.C., an overseer, monitor and evaluator of employment demonstration projects, the Ford Foundation, five federal sponsoring agencies, the Employment and Training Administration of the Labor Department, the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration of the Justice Department, the National Institute on Drug Abuse, the Office of Planning and

Evaluation of HEW, the Office of Policy Development and Research of HUD, 13 original project sites; and a principal research contractor, Mathematica, Inc., with a closely aligned subcontractor, the Institute for Research on Poverty of the University of Wisconsin.[17] The program was designed for populations who have had a traditionally difficult time gaining and maintaining regular employment. Included in the program's target group were out-of-school youth, former drug addicts and ex-offenders.

The program was called supported work. It was a transitional program; participants would leave at the end of a pre-determined period of time, whether they had obtained a job, as hoped, or not. While in the program, supported workers would earn entry level wages, with opportunities to increase their earnings through good performance and attendance.

The findings of a study of program effectiveness stated that "for a good many (of the participants), the program is thus far working as intended and in the youth group, supported work resulted in an almost 20% lower incidence of drug use among participants."

As cited by the Office of the Secretary for Policy, Evaluation and Research, Employment and Training Administration/DOL (1978),[18] the Oakland Youth Work Experience Program (YWEP) is another example of a collaborative arrangement for high-risk youth that involved existing manpower/government agencies.

> The YWEP was based conceptually upon a theoretical model developed by the Office Youth Development (OYD), DHEW and included selected elements of both the In- and Out-of-School Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) program and the Vocational Exploration in the Private Sectors (VEPS) program. It was developed as a model program for the U.S. Department of Labor and the initial contract included funds for a comprehensive, long range evaluation of its effectiveness in realizing its stated youth development goals.19

The program's outcomes were thus: (1) to increase youth's access to socially acceptable and meaningful roles both at school and in relation to present and future work roles; (2) to reduce negative labeling of youth at home, school and work; (3) to reduce feelings of alienation and rejection and, as a consequence, (4) to reduce involvement in delinquent behavior.

The target population was delinquent and pre-delinquent youth aged sixteen to eighteen. In addition, program participants were required to meet poverty level guidelines as specified by the Office of Management and Budget.

The program provided work experience and linked with area high schools, adult education programs, a street academy and a local community college to increase the youth's perception of career opportunities and improve basic educational skills.

Close working relationships were established with health, mental health, legal assistance and counseling agencies, as well as juvenile diversion programs, recreational organizations, and community and culturally based agencies.[20]

The evaluation findings of Study I revealed "no empirical evidence of favorable program impact on participants in general during the first six month evaluation period." In Study II "respondents again reported no favorable changes and, in fact, showed unfavorable changes in self-reported delinquency and parental rejection."[21]

As described by Barton & Fraser (1978),[22] the implementation of the Youth Work Experience Process Model in Oakland, California provides another example of the manpower/government institutional arrangement for the high-risk youth population. During the period June 1974 to June 1976, the National Office for Social Responsibility (NOSR) developed and put into operation a Model Youth Work Experience Program under contract to the U.S. Department of Labor's Offender Rehabilitation Division. This effort, funded under the Manpower Development and Training Act, was implemented with two hundred youth participants from the Oakland, California area, together with local school and government officials, a staff or eight on site, several people in Washington at the NOSR headquarters, and an evaluation team based in Boulder, Colorado, that made regular visits to the Oakland site.

The purpose of the effort was to:

1. assist delinquent and disadvantaged youth in increasing their employability through education, vocational training, work experience, and counseling;

2. develop a model utilizing the work experience concept; and

3. disseminate the model or successful feature of the model to local Prime Sponsors desirious of impacting the employment and training needs of disadvantaged youth.

Evaluation findings stated "no empirical evidence of favorable program impact on participants in general during the first six-month evaluation period and limited evidence that participation for a full year had some beneficial effects for experimental respondents."[23]

The final program to be examined within the manpower/government institutional arrangement section is the Experience-Based Career Education Model. The program was chosen because of its collaborative arrangement with cooperating school systems. The EBCE model, a career education approach to servicing high-risk youth, is designed to integrate knowledge of the world of work with a strong academic education.

Under the auspices of the National Institute of Education (NIE), four regional educational laboratories have been developed with the cooperation of the local school systems.

Key elements of the programs include:

- an emphasis on using community sites as the principal bases for learning experiences
- an individualized instructional system
- a life skills component
- a career development component
- a system of accountability for students

Data on program outcomes showed that the experimental groups scored significantly higher than the control group on oral communication skills and career planning, student attitudes toward the school environment improved, and experimental students dropped out of school at a rate of 5% while controls students dropped out at a rate of 15%.

The last set of programs to be covered in this review is comprised of programs in which an alternative educational delivery agency is run by a Community Based Organization (CBO).

An example of a program designed for high-risk youth and involving a CBO in the collaborative arrangement is the Cincinnati Clerical Co-op. The program, as described by Walther (1976),[25] was targeted toward young, predominantly black females who qualified under poverty guidelines and were mostly school dropouts. The program provided for periods of class-room work and periods of work experience in firms of potential employers of students. It was designed to improve clerical skills, work habits and job-seeking activities.

"During the first four years of operation, the Co-op achieved substantial success in preparing its trainees for clerical jobs and the labor market performance of its graduates was significantly better than a control group composed of enrollees in other parts of the Cincinnati Neighborhood Youth Corps program."[26]

Another example of an alternative education delivery agency run by a CBO is the Vocational Foundation, Inc. (VFI). According to the Work in America Institute, Inc. (1979),[27] the VFI is a private, nonprofit job placement agency, located in New York City since 1936, which largely serves those youths who have had some contact with the law and who are the most disadvantaged. The program has established collaborative arrangements with the courts, probation agencies, and public and private youth services. It has become regarded as the agency of last resort for the most difficult and hardest-to-place youths.

The VFI's primary function is to place youth in jobs. The program places approximately 40 percent of all enrolees; most of these placements occurring in small owner-proprietor firms.

VFI also has a developmental program, which combined OJT with classroom instruction. The 11-month program, JUMP, trains draftsmen for professional architectural and engineering societies. The results have been impressive: the JUMP retention rate on the job averaged 65 percent.

The Demonstration Project on Youth Career Development for School-to-Work Transition, as cited by Janice O. Mapp (1979)[28] is another example of a CBO focused collaborative arrangement. The program, developed by the National Urban League, was designed to explore the feasibility of having varied organizations, both government and CBO, to link with private sector employers and public secondary school systems to provide special career development assistance to disadvantaged high school juniors and seniors. An evaluation design was developed to measure not only student outcomes but also the relative effectiveness of school-to-work transition service delivery among CBOs as compared to other delivery agents. The model is currently being implemented by the National Urban League, U.S. DOL Women's Bureau, SER Jobs for Progress, U.S. Employment Service, Recruitment and Training Program, and the National Council of Negro Women.

The final program to be offered as an example of a CBO institutional collaborative arrangement targeted to the high-risk population is the Career Intern Program. As described by Barton and Fraser,[29] the program, developed by the Opportunities Industrialization Centers of America, Inc., (OIC/A) is an alternative high school for 16 to 21 year-old youth who are dropouts or are in serious risk of dropping out prior to high school graduation. The program goals are to assist interns in their completion of high school, the acquisition of career information, the development of career plans and the improvement of basic academic skills and affective growth.

According to Gibboney, Assoc. (1977),[30] the Career Intern Program was one element of the larger Urban Career Education Center ceoncept. The UCEC model offered a tripartite design to attack problems related to inner-city/disadvantaged/high-risk youth. One component of UCEC, the Career Orientation Program (COP) served selected elementary, middle and junior high schools by assisting them in their efforts to design career education materials. Another component, the Community Career Program, aided parents in obtaining legal and medical help, housing and other community services.

UCEC (CIP) was developed and tested in Philadelphia from 1972 to 1976. In the final evaluation report, produced by the National Institute of Education (NIE) from data collected by an outside evaluation team, it is stated:

> The CIP seems able to attract, hold, motivate and change students. In addition, changes in reading and mathematics achievement and in career development as measured by standardized tests, interview, unobtrusive indicators and ethnographic studies also suggested benefits of CIP participation.31
>
> Under authorization of the Youth Employment and Demonstration Project Act of 1977 (YEDPA, PL 95-93), the Department of Labor and NIE entered into an Interagency Agreement to test the replicability of the CIP. The study was designed to ascertain if the same benefits could be achieved in geographically, economically, and culturally diverse locations and without the "presence" of Rev. Leon Sullivan. The four sites selected for this project were Seattle, Washington; Detroit, Michigan; Poughkeepsie, New York; and New York City.
>
> All of the results are not yet in, however, preliminary findings indicate the following:
>
> - Attempts to replicate the CIP have effected full or nearly full implementation of the program.
> - The OIC system is a viable diffusion mechanism.
> - Cognitive, effective and career development gains have occurred, to varying degrees in all replication sites as measured against control, comparison, and norm reference groups. (Ethnographic findings support the data.)32

The review of the literature of this policy area was designed to provide a general picture of the diversity of program models and collaborative institutional arrangements involved in the processes of facilitating the school-to-work transition for high-risk youth. The programs cited were considered illustrative of that diversity. Each program selected identified as its target population youth included within the Youthwork Inc. description of high-risk youth. Each program reviewed was described according to a general program information format. The format was designed to disclose factors, explicit or implicit, relative to the nature and effectiveness of the aforementioned collaborative arrangements.

Logical analysis of the review of this area illuminated an information gap that is consistent throughout the literature. The success or failure of most programs reviewed cannot, from the literature, be attributable solely to the collaborative arrangements utilized by the programs. Evaluation results, generally, do not identify collaboration as a major factor. The effectiveness of programs was often measured in terms of cognitive and affective growth of participants and/or job placement and only assumptions can be made about the affect collaboration had on these outcomes. In addition, the collaborative process, including detailed descriptions of approaches, was not covered extensively in the literature.

Foat and Stromquist (1979)[33] have forwarded the following assessment of the effectiveness of the three institutional arrangements previously described.

> While all three institutional arrangements are possible, some appear to have advantages over others. Programs with well-developed community networks tend to perform better in gaining access to disadvantaged and, particularly, out-of-school youths. They also show superior performance in obtaining diversified jobs matched to youths' interests.
>
> The cooperation of the LEA in the identification of potential entollees, awarding academic credit, and even granting high school diplomas is possible, though obtaining this cooperation is likely to be a time-consuming and laborious process in most communities. On the other hand, it is clear that LEAs face a number of philosophical, practical, and political disincentives in collaborating with DOL-sponsored programs. The fact that they have collaborated is a testament to the powerful incentive afforded by external funding. It appears unlikely that LEAs will adopt these programs once federal support is cut off.
>
> The performance of prime sponsors as organizers of work experiences has been rather poor, but no conclusive statements can be made about their capabilities, as these agencies were subject to severe time constraints during the implementation process. Also, they were assigned tasks relatively unfamiliar

to them--the establishment of relations with the LEA and with numerous businesses and agencies in the community. It remains to be tested whether the knowledge gained from the current experience has rendered prime sponsors more proficient.

Additional information on the collaborative process was found in the literature of the National Manpower Institute (1978)[34] which stated:

> In a particular community, the most effective means for assisting youth to find appropriate employment at the various stages in the school-to-work transition will depend on such factors as:
>
> - size and economic characteristics of the community;
> - capabilities and policies of local employment service/job service offices;
> - characteristics of the public school system;
> - hiring practices of large and small employers in the community;
> - role of community-based organizations in economic and educational affairs;
> - patterns of cooperation among employers, labor unions, educational institutions, and local manpower agencies; and
> - community attitudes toward education and work.

Recommendations for Policy

The following recommendations are forwarded to increase our knowledge of institutional collaborative arrangements designed to facilitate the school-to-work transition of youth in the high-risk population.

(1) Criteria for judging program effectiveness and methods for assessing the effect of the collaborative arrangement on program success should be clearly defined.

(2) The role of Community-Based-Organizations could be expanded to include the use of CETA funds for in-school programs. (Mapp 1979)[35]

(3) Time needs to be allotted for the development of effective collaborative arrangements.

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What combinations of services work best to specific sub-groups within the high-risk population?

How can feasibility studies adequately assess a community's potential for successful collaboration?

What, if any, criteria and guidelines should be established for local collaboration efforts?

How can program designs reflect the maximum utilization of existing and new collaborative arrangements?

Should program services be subdivided to foster collaboration?

Are some services best rendered by a single agency?

"An important lesson from the past is the recognition that simple or clearcut solutions are not be anticipated for the complex problems underlying youth employment" (Vogel).[36]

There are no simple or clearcut answers to the problem of identifying the most effective collaborative arrangements for the high-risk youth population. Hopefully, continued search for answers will contribute to informed judgments.

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CHAPTER TWO

The Relative Effect and Value of Private Sector vs. Public Sector Job Placement/Experience

A review of the literature on the relative effect of private sector vs. public sector job placement/experience on the long-term employability of high risk youth turned up considerable information. The information was not available from comparative studies between public/private sector work experience, but rather in books, articles and studies of a whole gamut of youth employment programs. Information on work experience itself, and its value in terms of future employability was sought. This was then examined for findings related to the location of the work experience, the public or private sector. The benefits of individual programs in one sector needed to be weighed against the drawbacks of same, and reviewed in terms of general issues rather than specific program characteristics.

The studies reviewed for this analysis paper dealt primarily with programs offering employment and training services for disadvantaged youth. The literature has not featured the term high-risk until very recently, and most of the publications reviewed were written prior to 1979. While the term disadvantaged is not synonomous to high-risk, it can be assumed that many of the characteristics of disadvantaged youth are found in high-risk youth populations.

This chapter will review the effect of work experience on the long term employability of high-risk youth. It will then discuss the relative merits and deficiencies of work experience programs in the public sector and the private sector.

The chapter will conclude with recommendations for policy initiatives and suggested areas for further study. References and notes will be provided at the end of the chapter.

Arvil V. Adams and Garth L. Mangum,[1] in their book The Lingering Crisis of Youth Unemployment, reassess the youth unemployment problem. They reviewed several published studies and further analyzed results of a national sample of men and women aged 16-19 followed longitudinally over a seven year period during the late 1960s and early 1970s. Their findings indicated that joblessness among out-of-school teenage youth carries a "hangover" effect. Those with early unfavorable labor market experiences, are more likely to have later unfavorably labor market experiences, all other things held constant.

In Chapter Six of the Adams/Mangum book, Wayne Stephenson[2] discusses this issue at greater length. His chapter, entitled "The Relationship Between Early Work Experience and Future Employability" describes that relationship. The findings of a study of 1500 young men and women followed over seven years demonstrated that to be frequently unemployed in the early years has a deleterious effect later on. Periods out of school and out of the labor force are viewed by employers with great concern, creating a demand side barrier to employment.

"Youth who spent the earlier period out of school and out of the labor force had earnings at the end of the survey (ages 23-26) about one-half the average for their race-sex cohort."[3] See Table 6-2.[4] Youth who were out of school and out of work in the earlier survey years had a much lower rate of employment than those who were either in school, employed or both. See Table 6-1.[5]

Joseph R. Antos and Wesley Mellow[6] also analyzed the data from the National Longitudinal Surveys of young men and women. They reviewed data based on interviews with 5,225 men aged 14-24 in 1966 and 5,159 women of the same ages in 1968. Individuals were subsequently interviewed each year through 1970 for men and 1971 for women. Among the findings of this study are indications that the influence of traditional human capital factors (education, training and work experience) is strong and systematic in regard to wage determination.

In other words, two analyses of National Longitudinal Survey Data have pointed out a close correlation between education, training and work experience in terms of future labor market experiences. If individuals remain in school for a longer period they will not suffer labor market problems as

Table 6-1. Labor Force Status in Final Survey Year by Earlier School Enrollment and Labor Force Status (percent distribution)

	Final survey year (23 to 26 years of age)					
	Men			Women		
Status and age	Employed	Unemployed	Out of Labor Force	Employed	Unemployed	Out of Labor Force
First survey year (16 to 19 years of age):						
In School						
Employed	92.2	5.1	2.7	67.8	8.4	23.8
Unemployed	92.0	8.0	0.0	51.4	6.8	41.9
Out of labor force	91.4	3.7	4.9	67.4	7.2	25.4
Out of school						
Employed	95.2	1.7	3.1	60.4	6.1	33.6
Unemployed	89.7	6.9	3.4	42.3	8.5	49.3
Out of labor force	78.9	7.9	13.2	37.7	7.7	54.5
Fifth survey year (20 to 23 years of age):						
In school						
Employed	95.4	3.3	1.3	91.7	1.7	6.6
Unemployed	100.0	0.0	0.0	57.1	14.3	28.6
Out of labor force	94.3	3.4	2.3	76.9	9.6	13.5
Out of school						
Employed	95.2	2.9	1.9	72.2	6.7	21.1
Unemployed	80.0	9.3	10.7	49.5	13.8	36.7
Out of labor force	62.2	13.3	24.4	32.8	7.5	59.7
Total	92.4	4.0	3.5	60.0	7.3	32.7
Size of Sample	1,355	59	52	926	113	504

Source: National Longitudinal Surveys.

Table 6-2. Mean Earnings by Prior Labor Force and School Enrollment Status for Aging Cohorts of Young Men and Young Women Who Were Out of School in Final Survey Year

	Final Survey Year (23 to 26 years of age)			
	Men		Women	
Status and age per survey year	White	Black	White	Black
Size of sample	1,243	402	1,053	458
Grand mean	$7,308	$5,634	$3,646	$3,469
First survey year (16 to 19 years of age):				
In school				
Employed	$7,784	$5,797	$4,188	$4,295
Unemployed	6,858	5,644	3,465	3,224
Out of labor force	6,939	5,564	4,292	3,803
Out of School				
Employed	7,423	5,937	3,308	3,791
Unemployed	6,816	4,077	2,226	3,120
Out of labor force	4,676	3,921	1,962	1,879
	F=3.25***	F=1.60	F=10.81****	F=5.21****
Fifth survey year (20 to 23 years of age):				
In school				
Employed	$7,988	$6,036	$5,695	$5,985
Unemployed	8,036	4,550	5,344	4,118
Out of labor force	6,309	3,785	4,710	4,806
Out of school				
Employed	7,918	6,065	4,744	4,757
Unemployed	6,289	5,124	2,753	2,670
Out of labor force	3,959	2,084	1,222	1,530
	F=7.55****	F=5.14****	F=51.09****	F=27.61****

Source: National Longitudinal Surveys.
Significance levels: 10%(*) 5%(**) 1%(***) 0.1%(****).

recurrent or severe as those of individuals who neither remained in school nor were employed. For individuals who have dropped out of school, work experience is vital to future labor market success.

The National Child Labor Committee[7] has analyzed the issue of work experience from the point of view of youth as well as from the point of view community service. It cites a statement from the Office of Youth Programs "A Knowledge Development Plan for YEDDA 1977" which says that work experience is the chief element for impacting on youth's ability to get and keep a job, for career development and for providing viable and tangible community benefits under YEDPA and CETA Title VI. While the Committee endorses the concept of work experience, it questions whether all the goals of work experience programs have been achieved and whether all the goals are, in fact, compatible. The Committee further identifies some characteristics which work experience projects should offer to their participants:

1. The change to experiment
2. Real training in specific skills
3. General training in work skills and habits[8]

While the above-mentioned sources indicated general support for work experience and work-experience programs for youth, there are other researchers who raise questions about the success of earlier work experience efforts.

Sar Levitan[9] reviewed the Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) program of the 1960s and found that there was a scarcity of hard data on the impact of the program. The NYC program for out-of-school youth seemed to be a mixture of "work experience, income support and aging vat."[10] The program, national in scope, varied widely among communities but NYC was unable to evaluate the effectiveness of one program over another. One statistically significant finding of the many evaluations of NYC was that the longer a youth remained in NYC, the less were his/her chances of being placed in a correctional institution.

Feldman and Peeven support the theory that work experience is a significant factor in the long-term employability of youth, but they raise a concern about whether youth can attain that early work experience: "while many youthful job seekers experience difficulty in finding jobs, due in part to inexperience and lack of training, other young persons face even greater problems because of poverty, racial discrimination, delinquency, lack of employment opportunities in rural areas, and physical and mental handicaps.[11]

Harry Silberman[12] recognizes the need for work experience for youth and recommends organized work experience programs as being better educational experiences than casual part-time work obtained for income purposes. He favors educational work experience occurring at the work place for three reasons: To overcome the isolation of the young from the work-place, to provide adult role models for youth and to provide needed responsibility for youth.

Throughout the literature reviewed, there runs a consistent agreement that work experience is a crucial need of high-risk youth in order to insure labor market success later in life. There is considerable disagreement as to what form this work experience should take, how it might be organized or funded, what groups it might best serve and whether it should be primarily available in the public sector or private sector. In order to examine this issue, a review of the literature on the advantages and disadvantages of work experience/placement in the public sector and private sector will be provided.

PRIVATE SECTOR WORK EXPERIENCE

Advantages

1. Most of the jobs are in the private sector.

Private firms account for 3/4 - 4/5 of employment in the non-farm economy.[13] According to the National Commission for Manpower Policy[14] over 80% of the jobs in the American economy are in the private sector. It is likely that the growth of public sector employment may be reduced sharply in the near future. Thus, a higher proportion than 80% of future expansions in employment could occur in the private sector.

2. There is a wider range of job opportunities and experiences in the private sector.

Ray Rist,[15] in a study of the Exemplary In-School Demonstration Projects conducted 451 interviews with youth participants in the programs, as well as with staff, supervisors and program operators. Programs studied included some with private sector participation and some without. He found that private sector involvement results in a wider diversity of experimental job opportunities and it increased the chances of placement for youth in meaningful, interest-related work experiences.

3. Private sector programs cost less.

Richard H. de Lone,[16] of the Corporation for Public/Private Ventures in Philadelphia, writes that private sector placements are better because the costs should be less than public service employment programs and long range savings will be effected through reduced welfare and other income transfer payments. Youth will develop better work habits and skills in private sector jobs and they will be able to make contacts which could lead to other jobs.

Disadvantages

1. Private sector jobs are vulnerable to the ups and downs of the economy.

Anita Vogel[17] in Retrospective Survey of Programs for Youth Employment in the Private Sector noted that past private sector initiatives in providing jobs for the disadvantaged proved vulnerable to fluctuations in the economy. One example of this was the Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) program. The program collapsed under the economic recession of 1970.

2. Youth jobs in the private sector are not "meaningful."

According to studies by Adams and Maugum[18] it is important to make youth work experience jobs attractive. They should provide useful work experiences, access to training and openings to new career ladders. This is most difficult to do in the private sector where youth jobs are generally not "meaningful."

3. Barriers to youth employment must be overcome.

Vogel[19] cites two types of barriers to youth development in the private sector, opportunity barriers and job requirements. The opportunity barriers include geography and discrimination. While most high-risk youth reside in the inner cities, the growing job market is in the suburban rings around the cities. Discrimination is found to be a deterrent to the hiring of youth, minorities and those with a history of drug abuse or criminal justice system involvement. De Lone[20] gives the perspective of an employer toward high risk youth as feeling that the youth's skills and productivity are low while training costs are high. Youth tend to be unreliable and have high turnover rates. Youth lack the proper attitude and their expectations are unrealistic.

In addition to the opportunity barriers, the job requirements barriers which need to be overcome include entry tests and bonding availability.[21]

4. The younger the individual, the less appealing to most employers.

Employment and training efforts in the private sector should focus on "job-ready" youth.

> . . . the more public policy targets on the most disadvantaged workers, the less enthusiastic will be the response of the private sector to specific employment and training initiatives. Age is a compounding factor here, for all other things being equal, the younger the individual, the less appealing to most employers.22

Private sector jobs are more difficult to create for younger high-risk youth. For youth 16-17, jobs should be tied to school retention.[23] Youth under 18 years of age need special programs, while all youth need comprehensive services not generally provided by the private sector.[24]

5. Private sector programs must be monitored by the public sector.

Both Adams[25] and de Lone[26] recognize the need for public monitoring of private sector work experience programs for high-risk youth. Programs which utilize public funds, directly through wage subsidies or indirectly through tax incentives should be monitored. Monitoring should be performed to determine if conditions of good supervision, training/learning opportunities, wage progression and good human relations atmosphere are being met.

PUBLIC SECTOR WORK EXPERIENCE

Advantages

1. Public sector work experience programs can better serve the hard-to-employ.

According to the National Commission for Manpower Policy, public service employment can serve three employment goals:

> 1. Provide manpower development experiences for the hard-to-employ aimed at facilitating their transition to regular employment.
> 2. Provide employment opportunities for regularly attached members of the work force who lose their jobs during economic downturns.
> 3. Provide employment opportunities for groups and communities which experience significant loss of employment due to major structural dislocations.27

Public sector strategies should be engaged to provide employment and training services to younger high-risk youth.[28] Public sector jobs can more easily be targeted to specific populations according to the Adams, Mangum[29] study. However, they warn that too many jobs are needed to resolve the youth employment problem for public sector strategies alone.

2. Public sector work experience performs useful work.

Much of the work performed by youth in public sector work experience programs, such as weatherization of the homes of the elderly, would be done otherwise.[30] Youth are learning skills and performing socially useful work at the same time.

3. Public sector work experience programs can be established more quickly.

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Both the Corporation for Public/Private Ventures[31] and the Adams/Mangum[32] studies agree that public sector programs can be established more quickly, can recruit and place individuals faster and will show results sooner than similar programs in the private sector.

4. Public sector programs offer advantages related to collaboration and type of experiences.

Adams and Mangum[33] have found that public sector jobs are more likely to be "attractive," that is, to offer useful work experiences, access to training and openings to new career ladders. They also report that the public sector is more appropriate for younger cohorts of high-risk youth and jobs in that sector can be more easily tied to school retention for sixteen and seventeen year olds.

Disadvantages

1. Public sector jobs may not be "meaningful,"

Although it is in direct contrast to the findings of Adams and Mangum, Sar Levitan[34] in his review of the Neighborhood Youth Corps public sector work experience program, found that the agencies which provide jobs have little incentive to offer productive or meaningful work. This is because the agencies providing the work sites can secure labor at little or no cost and therefore do not make an investment to assure a meaningful work opportunity.

It should be pointed out that the Levitan study was published in 1967 while the Adams/Mangum book was done in 1978. It is possible that experiences during the ten intervening years changed the nature of public sector work experience projects and that they have become more attractive and meaningful.

2. Most jobs are in the private sector, and too many work experience slots are needed for youth.

Adams and Mangum[35] estimate that 800,000 jobs would need to be created to reduce youth unemployment to 8.5%. This would provide work experience for many high-risk youth presently unemployed. However, too many jobs are needed to do it all in the public sector. Since most jobs exist in the private sector, more work experience opportunities need to be established there.

The foregoing analysis points out the pluses and minuses of work experience efforts in the public and private sectors. The problem of youth unemployment is a serious one, but no one type of program is without drawbacks in alleviating the problem. What most of the literature indicates is that work experience early in the career of an out-of-school youth is very important to later labor market success. Whether that work experience is gained in the public sector or private sector will depend on a multiplicity of factors including age of the participant, career interest, available funding, location, and speed with which programs get underway. The conclusion which may be drawn from this literature review is that while work experience is crucial, there is no evidence that private sector work experience is intrinsically more valuable than public sector work experience, or vice versa. In each case, the most appropriate and most available work experience opportunity should be seized by high-risk youth, or by employment and training program operators serving high-risk youth.

Recommendations for Policy

The policy recommendations enumerated in this section will be divided into groups covering similar issues.

A. Both public and private sector work experience initiatives should be pursued.

According to Anita Vogel[36] a matrix of services is most appropriate for serving high-risk youth, including job creation in the public sector, on-the-job training and institutional training in the private sector, placement with support services, and specialized firms for employing youth. Ms. Vogel's studies have also convinced her that a capable, enthusiastic administrator and staff are more important to program success than any particular model. Rist,[37] MDS,[38] and the National Child Labor Committee[39] all concur in the conclusion that the supervisor, and relationship between supervisor and enrollees is the single most important aspect of a work experience program. While the literature did not elaborate on any ways to assure proper staff and supervisory personnel, several possibilities for impacting on this problem might be considered. Programs must make thoughtful personnel decisions and effective human relations skills. When work sites are developed in existing public or private agencies, supervisors may need training to prepare them for working with high-risk youth, and to create realistic expectations of the abilities and attitudes of the youth while disabusing them of preconceived notions and stereotypes.

Ray Rist's[40] studies have indicated that the quality of the work experience is dependent on matching the worksite activity with the youth's career interests. Placement should be made in the sector which will offer the best chance of matching youths' job interests with available worksites.

The attached charts from the Corporation for Public/Private Ventures Directory[41] describe a variety of programs incorporating public and private sector involvement.

B. A variety of economic policy initiatives must be undertaken to alleviate the problem of high youth unemployment.

The Corporation for Public/Private Ventures, in its publication Public-Private Partnerships for Dealing with the Problems of Youth makes the following statement:

> Dealing with youth unemployment is thus a far broader task than providing jobs alone. It encompasses the entire transition from school to work. It must attack our most perplexing unsolved social problems: poverty, race and how to provide some sense of personal worth and equilibrium within a vast impersonal society, especially among disaffected young Americans.42

In regard to the issue of poverty and unemployment, various economic initiatives are recommended. Richard de Lone[43] recommends stimulation of the demand for labor and the economic development of the central cities as part of the solution. Adams and Mangum[44] concur on both counts recommending that the government should support a policy of full employment as well as expanding

PRE-EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMS

NAME OF PROGRAM	LOCATION(S)	ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE	PRIVATE SECTOR		PROGRAM FEATURES	POPULATION SERVED	CONTACTS	SOURCES
			COMPANIES/UNIONS INVOLVED	NATURE OF INVOLVEMENT				
		Administered By						
YOUTH EMPLOYMENT INSTITUTE Estab. 1978 Capacity: 60 Participants 8 weeks (1 cycle per yr).	Prince George County, MD	Bowie State College of Continuing Education and Behavioral Science Associates, Inc., a private, non-profit college Funding Source(s): CETA	Local companies	Provide employment.	Provides counseling search skills; emphasis on interpersonal relationship and development of self-esteem using wilderness trips as a vehicle	Disadvantaged high school graduates, non-college bound	Don Weinburg Office of Personnel, County Administration Building, Upper Marlboro, MD 20870 (301) 952-3630	CETA Works
YOUTH OPPORTUNITY UNLIMITED AND PRE-APPRENTICESHIP PROGRAM Estab. 1974 Capacity: 325 Participants 1 Year Cycles	St. Louis, MO	Providence, Inc., a private, non-profit agency (recently merged with Youth Opportunities, Unlimited) Funding Source(s): LEAA, CETA and Private Sector	Ralston Purina, Monsanto, and other local companies	Ralston Purina and Monsanto donate funds, participate in Board of Directors, provide some employment. Other companies provide work experience with half pay and employment.	Provide intensive individualized education; counseling 40 hours of work experience a week; career oriented seminars; job placement.	High school drop outs, some with ex-offender status, 16-21 year olds	Jim Radford Executive Director P.O. Box 6431 St. Louis, MO 63107 (314) 652-5866	CPPV information Providence Inc. materials.

PRE-EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMS

			PRIVATE SECTOR					
NAME OF PROGRAM	LOCATION(S)	ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE	COMPANIES/UNIONS INVOLVED	NATURE OF INVOLVEMENT	PROGRAM FEATURES	POPULATION SERVED	CONTACTS	SOURCES
YOUTHWORKS Estab. 1979 Capacity: 50 Participants 18 Months	Indianapolis IN	Administered by local Chamber of Commerce Funding Source(s): Lilly Foundation	Members of local local Chamber of Commerce and other local small to medium sized businesses	Administration, employment	Counseling, placement within first month, GED preparation.	Disadvantaged, including handicapped, 14-21 year olds	Mike Gunnason Director, 229 North Delaware St. Indianapolis, IN 46204 (317) 637-2312	CPPV information and visits
KING SNOHOMISH MANPOWER CONSORTIUM (KSMC) STIP* Estab. 1977 Capacity: 20 Participants 9 Months	Seattle, WA	Administered by local OIC Funding Source(s): CETA	Boeing, Lockheed, Tally Corp. and others	Provides assistance in curriculum design, employment.	Training in office machine operation and clerical skills job placement.	Disadvantaged Minimum age: 17	Rose Lincoln or Leon Grundstein KSMC, Room 1811 Smith Tower Seattle, WA 18904 (206) 625-4767 or -4822	STIP report
McGRAW HILL TRAINING PROGRAM Estab. 1969 Capacity: 75 Participants 6 Weeks	New York, NY	Administered by McGraw Hill Funding Source(s): McGraw Hill	McGraw Hill and local businesses	Trains and employs or job place-	Training in office skills, job placement.	Disadvantaged, including handicapped	Libert Diaforli Manager of Office Training, McGraw Hill, Inc. 1221 Avenue of the Americas New York, NY 10020 (212) 997-2769	SCOC CPPV information

PRE-EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMS

			PRIVATE SECTOR					
NAME OF PROGRAM	LOCATION(S)	ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE	COMPANIES/UNIONS INVOLVED	NATURE OF INVOLVEMENT	PROGRAM FEATURES	POPULATION SERVED	CONTACTS	SOURCES
PHILADELPHIA BUSINESS ACADEMY* Estab. 1969 Capacity: 300 Participants 3 Years	2 Philadelphia high schools	Jointly administered by Board of Education and local businesses Funding Source(s): Foundation, private sector, and school board	local businesses	Provide staff on loan for training, equipment, facilities, financial aid, participate in Board of Directors	Alternative high school program, training in clerical skills with student-run clerical temporary business; career exploration and other educational services in alternative high school setting.	High school dropouts and potential dropouts 10-12 grades	Mr. Pinto, University High School, 36th and Filbert St. Phila., PA 19104 Eugene Jordan South Phila. High School, Broad and Snyder, Phila. PA 19148	CPPV SCOC NY Report
STAMFORD-STIP Estab. 1975 Capacity: NA	Stamford, CT	Jointly administered by Prime Sponsor and local Private Industry Council (PIC) Funding Source(s): CETA	Kober Plant, PIC	Kober Plant provides facility. Kober and PIC assist in curriculum design, employment opportunities	Secretarial skills training	Disadvantaged Minimum age: 17	Edward Canning Executive Director, 20 Summers St. Stamford, CT 06901 (203) 348-4263	CETA Works STIP Report
OUT OF SCHOOL YOUTH COOPERATIVE TRAINING PROGRAM Estab. 1972 Capacity: 85 Participants 1 Year	Dallas, TX	Administered by Dallas Independent School System Funding Source(s): HEW	Local companies	Provide part time work experience employment	Self contained alternative high school; work experience; individualized learning; completion of GED; academic credit for work; job placement.	Disadvantaged, high school drop outs, 16-21 years old	J.E. Cogswell Dallas Independent School District - 3700 Ross Avenue, Dallas, TX 75204 (214) 824-1620	CPPV Information

PRE-EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMS

NAME OF PROGRAM	LOCATION(S)	ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE	PRIVATE SECTOR		PROGRAM FEATURES	POPULATION SERVED	CONTACTS	SOURCES
			COMPANIES/UNIONS INVOLVED	NATURE OF INVOLVEMENT				
PROGRESS WITH PARTNERS Estab. 1978 Capacity: Open ended 18 Months	Alton, IL	Local school district Funding Soutce(s): CETA	Local businesses	Business representatives act as role models for youth. Provide them with counseling and guidance on a voluntary basis; part time work experience employment.	Comprehensive educational program in which the volunteers provide guidance and counseling through an intensive personal relationship,	Disadvantaged youth, high school seniors, majority drop outs or potential drop outs.	Mary Jungers P.O. Box B 1854 E. Broadway, Alton, IL 62002 (618) 463-2106	CPPV information Progress With Partners materials.
ST. LOUIS WORK-STUDY PROGRAM Estab. 1967 Capacity: 300 Participants 1 Year	St. Louis, MO	Board of Education Funding Source(s): HEW	Ralston Purina, Bell Telephone, and other local businesses.	Provide part time paid work experience; site for classroom studies; supervision; employment for majority of participants.	Work and study program; both take place at the company's site; studies very related to work experienced the previous day.	High school seniors and selected juniors, non-college bound.	Peter C. Rein 1118 S. Seventh St. St. Louis, MO 63104	CED report, program materials, CPPV information

Source: Corporation for Public/Private Ventures, Directory urban economic development programs to provide more jobs in the central cities where most high-risk youth are located. Antos and Mellow[45] observe that the impact of economic downturns fall disproportionately on youth and suggest that macroeconomic policies designed to increase the overall level of economic activity will do much to improve youth's situation in the labor market. While Vogel[46] supports job creation efforts in the public sector, Adams and Mangum[47] feel that job creation efforts must occur both in the public sector and private sector.

C. Incentives must be provided to the private sector to stimulate participation in the youth employment and training effort.

Anita Vogel[48] recognizes the need for economic incentives to employers to involve them in programs for youth. Among the incentives already adopted are subsidies for the costs of training, as in the OJT program, and government subsidy of youth "trainee wages," YEDPA programs. While incentives may induce employers to bring on employees they may not have otherwise hired, the incentives themselves will not impact on the total number of available jobs.

The Corporation for Public/Private Ventures[49] create effective utilization of wage subsidies and tax incentives to involve the private sector more than they have been in the past. Adams and Mangum[50] support the use of monetary incentives to achieve greater involvement of the private sector.

D. Barriers to the full participation of youth in the labor market must be overcome.

Anita Vogel was earlier cited for indicating specific barriers to youth in the labor market, including opportunity barriers and job requirements. In response to the issue of geographic barriers, we have already had recommendations of urban economic development. Vogel[51] suggests not only bringing the jobs to the youth as in the above solution, but also bringing the youth to the jobs through transportation subsidies and a marketing effort to involve suburban employers. She also recommends involving employers and unions in youth work-preparation programs as a way of reducing discrimination. de Lone[52] indicates that employers may be more receptive to youth employment programs when they are school-related.

Vogel has interviewed Seymour Brandewein in her Retrospective Survey, and he offers some suggestions to better involve employers while reducing barriers. He advocates concentrating efforts on those labor intensive industries which already employ youth and focusing on smaller firms.

As an alternative to job requirements which call for a high school diploma or similar certification, he recommends adoption of policies requiring written references for youth.[53]

The Corporation for Public/Private Ventures[54] suggests exploring new concepts of apprenticeship, internship and other mechanisms for assimilating youth in the private sector.

E. Youth employment initiatives in the public or private sector should involve the educational system.

The Committee for Economic Development[55] recommends integrating the classroom and the workplace as a means of expanding training and job opportunities for the hardest to employ. They suggest that schools need to take as part of their responsibility the arranging of work experience opportunities for youth. This approach will benefit both youth and employers, according to the Committee. Antos and Mellow[56] concur with this thinking, finding that formal education, work experience and training increase both the probability of employment and the wage rate. They suggest that to maximize the benefits for youth more work-study programs should be established as well as tuition subsidies for post-secondary training for noncollege youth.

Adams and Mangum,[57] in recognizing the close correlation between school retention and labor market success recommend expansion of cooperative work-study programs. They too admit the need to build better bridges between school and work. de Lone[58] approaches this issue from a slightly different perspective. Although he clearly sees the relationship between education and labor market success, he feels that the educational system must itself be improved as a means of increasing the educational attainment of high-risk youth.

To summarize the recommendations, two statements from oft-quoted sources in this Literature Review are most appropriate:

> Labor market policies aimed at providing employment for out-of-school youth who are out of work will pay off both immediately and for years to come.59
>
> In periods of substantial overall unemployment, public employment programs (especially for minority and economically disadvantaged youth) may be useful in providing young people with essential work experience.60

Suggested Areas For Further Study

There are many questions still unanswered about the relative effect and value of private sector vs. public sector placement/experience on the long-term employability of high-risk youth. These questions may be divided into two areas, those concerned primarily with labor market issues and those primarily directed at the needs of the youth themselves. Drawing on all of the sources reviewed in the preparation of this document, the following suggestions are made regarding areas for further study and research.

A. Labor Market Inquiries

1. More information is needed on the effect of private sector work experience programs for youth. Many new initiatives are now underway which include private sector participation in youth employment and training programs. Are these programs successful?; what features can be replicated?; are new jobs being created?; are certain groups of young people better served by the private sector than others?; and many other similar questions need to be answered by researchers and program monitors.

2. We need to have more information about the youth labor market. What kind of jobs are held by youth?; how do they obtain those jobs?; how long

are they attached to any job? and how long do they remain in the labor market?

A related question is what training opportunities are associated with the jobs youth commonly hold?

3. What effect do wage subsidies for youth have on other groups in the labor force? Adams and Mangum[61] note that illegal aliens and older workers may be in competition with youth for low-skilled (illegal aliens) and part-time (older workers) jobs. What policies can make youth more attractive to employers compared with other groups in the population? At what point are we subsidizing youth too heavily so that they begin displacing workers? All of these questions require additional research.

4. Not enough is known about how job development can improve the long-term employability of youth through successful placement subsequent to work experience programs.

B. Youth-directed Inquiries

1. How would youth respond to a program of guaranteed jobs?

2. Are there particular incentives which will be more successful in convincing drop-outs to return to school? How can educational programs be revised to more effectively attract and educate high-school drop-outs?

3. What is the relationship between youth unemployment and juvenile delinquency? Can work experience programs successfully compete with the extra-legal labor market existing in many inner-city communities? How can peer pressure be directed toward generating acceptable work habits and attitudes?

4. What are the effects and ramifications of youth job turnover? Does it indicate a healthy search for appropriate employment ("a good job") or does it substantiate the claim that youth are unreliable? Does frequent

job turnover correlate to later labor market problems? What supportive services, if any, can reduce job turnovers?

The answers to some of these questions are presently being sought under the Knowledge Development Plan associated with the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act. As information becomes available to program operators, it is anticipated that they will be able to modify existing programs and develop new ones which can employ the most effective strategies for improving the long-term employability of high-risk youth.

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CHAPTER THREE

Targeting, Identifying, and Recruiting

The experience of the past two decades has revealed the existence of a vast number of youth who have little chance to acquire saleable skills and become productive and useful members of society. A growing recognition that efforts to reduce that number need to be increased is reflected in a U.S. Senator's presentation to the Committee on Labor and Human Resources:

> These young people enter a world in which they are ill-prepared to survive. Having no skills, they drift in and out of the welfare system and a series of dead end jobs. Many of these young adults are members of minority groups. They feel totally shut out of the cycle of achievement and opportunity which has been one of the marks of our great Nation. Their idleness which results in the waste of human potential is one of the great tragedies we must acknowledge and face. Their frustration spills over into violence, illegal activity, and abuse of drugs and alcohol.[1]

These young people are to be found in communities in every part of the Nation, but they appear to be located in the urban centers and within certain minority groups in far greater numbers. Many predict that the problem of youth unemployment will worsen in some communities and for some groups in the 1980s. The question of who then should be served, how they should be served, where they should be served and how they are identified, attracted to programs, and maintained needs to be explored to some degree.

Mangum and Snedeker[2] state that targeting should be based upon some kind of service strategy. They recommend that funds should be first allocated to problem areas, then to population groups affected by each problem area, and finally among service strategies designed for employment preparedness within each group.[3] Taggart[4] concludes that both teenagers and young adults have in the past, been a major target group of employment and training efforts. Three-fifths of first-time enrollees in federal manpower programs were under age 22 in fiscal 1974, and 64 percent were aged 18 or less.[5] The effort to serve young people who could be, at any given time, high school dropouts, substance abusers, juvenile justice system clients, teenage parents and chronically unemployed was evident in a number of categorical programs. Taggart states that:

> Under the old categorical programs, first-time obligations per enrollee ranged from $3,300 under the Job Corps in fiscal 1974 to $540 for the in-school Neighborhood Youth Corps program (NYC) and $470 for summer NYC. Between these extremes, expenditures ranged from $1,300 under the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP) and $1,600 under the NYC out-of-school program to $2,200 under the Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) and $2,800 under the Manpower Development and Training Act - Institutional Program (MDTA). To varying degrees, these different programs emphasized training, placement, and other pre-employment assistance (such as assessment, placement, and counseling). The Job Corps was an attempt at the complete remediation of the most disadvantaged youths.6

Walther[7] writes that the unemployment problems of youth have been a focus of concern for Federal manpower planning during the past 15 years. Youth employment services are authorized by the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973. Title III of the Act enables the Secretary of Labor to provide services to special populations which includes youth and disadvantaged groups. Under CETA, prime sponsors are also responsible for determining local needs and providing programs designed to meet them through such activities as classroom training, on-the-job training, work experience, public service employment, counseling, testing, job development, child care and other supportive services.[8]

The Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977, which amended CETA, created four major demonstration programs, each representing a different way of addressing youth employment problems, and authorized a variety of experimental and demonstration projects to test the kinds of services that work best for different work groups.[9] The Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects (YIEPP) are designed to test the effect of guaranteed jobs on the high school return, retention, and completion rates of economically disadvantaged youth.[10] Economically disadvantaged young people 16 to 19 years old in selected geographic areas are the target group of this program. The Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Projects (YCCIP) are designed to develop the vocational potential of jobless youth by providing them with well-supervised work of tangible community benefit. The program is for unemployed 16-19 year olds, with preference given to out-of-school youth with the most severe difficulty in finding employment.[11] Youth Employment and Training Programs (YETP) seek to enhance the job prospects and career preparation of low income youth aged 16 through 21 who have the most severe problems in entering the labor force.[12] The Young Adult Conservation Corps (YACC) is aimed to give young people experience in particular occupational skills through work on conservation and other projects. Young people aged 16 through 23 who are unemployed and out of school are eligible for the program. Preferance is given to youth from high-unemployment areas.[13] Richard de Lone states that:

> It is clear that the administrative and legislative direction of youth unemployment policy is towards targeting, with the usual standards of CETA eligibility -low-income, unemployment, and underemployment used to define the target group. Simple grounds of equity combined with the need to husband scarce public resources as a strong rationale for targeting on the most disadvantaged youth.[14]

Mangum and Walsh[15] assert that the term "hard core disadvantaged" first came into use in connection with the 1962 Manpower Training and Development Act's experimental programs. It was never given an essential definition, but it generally referred to youth and adults who would not enroll in programs on their own initiative and who suffered from severe personal problems, such as low educational attainment and achievement levels, arrest or conviction records, drug and alcohol use, lack of motivation, or anti-social behavior, or found alternative sources of income in an illegal or "irregular" economy.

Youthwork[16] states that the term "high risk youth" refers to those in critical need of a job. They are in need of skills training and help in understanding a wide range of issues and demands associated with getting and keeping meaningful employment. They further define the term "high risk" by stating:

> They are the youth who may remain in school only because it is better than being out on the street, or they may be out on the street because it is better than staying in school. They are the young people who may be cynical and alienated from schools, employers, families, and service agencies. They may or may not be involved with the criminal justice system. They may live in inner cities or on a farm. The common denominator is that, where

> institutions and agencies reach out or profess to reach out to assist the poor and disadvantaged, they somehow remain unaffected by these efforts. They have not benefited from, or have not been well served by, these institutions. These young people are the least likely to get a meaningful job that offers opportunities for success and advancement.17

Traditional educational and employment programs are often unresponsive to the compound needs of troubled youth. To deal effectively with this target group requires comprehensive support, continuity of assistance and multiple chances; this in turn, demands a delivery mechanism which can provide a full range of services on an individualized basis.[18] This would seem to support the position taken by Wolfbein[19] that the delivery system should be individually oriented and paced, with the recognition that the system has to deliver different things at different times and different stages even to the same individual. Tyler[20] asserts that the 20 to 25 percent of our youth who have not acquired the knowledge, skills, and attitudes required for a responsible and productive life require specially designed opportunities to enable them to learn the basic skills as well as to gain experience from production and service to others. Mangum and Walsh also supported this position by indicating that "in addition to such traditional service components as work experience, skills training and remedial education, isolated youth (high risk and hard core) benefit most from intensive personal and employment counseling, job development, subsidized employment, and job search training."[21]

Over the past few years several delivery service programs targeted to "high risk" or "hard core" youth have been designed and funded. Most of these programs have attempted to provide a comprehensive range of services on an individualized or quasi-individualized basis. A program developed by the Opportunities Industrialization Centers of America, Inc., in Philadelphia targeted to 16 through 21 year old high school drop-outs or who are in serious risk of dropping out, combined three distinct phases of service. Phase I is geared toward Career Awareness, lasts 21 weeks, and includes English, math, social studies, and science instruction on an individualized basis. Each discipline is keyed to the world of work and related to occupations. Phase II lasts from four months to a full year. This phase stresses individual instruction, independent study, and exposure to "hands-on" job experiences. Phase III allows students to concentrate on the school to work transition or post-secondary education as well as complete all requirements for the high school diploma. The population served was predominately black males and females, most were four years behind in basic skill achievement and lived in neighborhoods in which high incidence of drug abuse and gang activity are well-documented.[22]

Project 70001, founded by the Thom McAnn Shoe Company in Wilmington, Delaware in 1969, is targeted towards unemployed male and female school drop-outs in the 16-21 age range. Most of those served (90%) are economically, socially, and educationally disadvantaged. Those served receive full-time work experience jobs in the distributive education field and attend GED classes in the evening.[23] The program has personal, motivational and self-confidence building concepts, as well as on-the-job training. Referrals were at first produced through close working relationships with employment services, schools and related community service agencies. After six months, the majority of applicants found their way into 70001 through "word of mouth" referrals.[24]

Other program models that combined work experiences, career exploration, and basic education include the Work and Career Exploration Program[25] which, in the pilot, was targeted for 14 and 15 year old school-oriented youth. Such youth were considered to be potential dropouts and the program consisted of school-supervised work experience and training with exposure to real jobs and careers. The program sought to reduce the enrollee's absence and truancy rate and ultimately the system drop-out rate.

Neighborhood Youth Corps[26] was initially a national Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 effort to provide three types of services to 9th through 12th grade male and female youth. The three major components consisted of: in-school, summer, and out-of-school programs. The purpose was to prevent potential early school leaving and encourage drop-outs to return to school. The program was also targeted to those from low income families who were not in school. Services were provided for those in rural areas as well as in urban and high unemployment sectors.[26] Services included training, career orientation, counseling, cultural enrichment, and work experiences. Walthers and Magnusson (1975),[27] Fox, May, and Schwartz (1973),[28] Smith and Pitcher

(1973),[29] and Somers and Stromsdorfer (1970)[30] conducted studies of NYC effectiveness and concluded, for the most part, that the program did have implications for school-to-work transition, but not necessarily for "hard core" type individuals.

The Vocational Exploration In the Private Sector Program is another program that addresses the needs, to some extent, of high-risk youth. The Vocational Exploration in the Private Sector Program was a joint effort of the U.S. Department of Labor, the National Alliance of Businessmen (NAB) and the Office of Education of HEW. The program services were targeted to in-school youths at least 16 years of age and who were classified as economically disadvantaged. The major service thrust involved counseling and basic skill remediation, career orientation, non-productive on-the-job training, and productive work experience. The participants were recruited by Neighborhood Youth Corps sponsors and had to be certified as "probable dropouts."[31]

The Youth Conservation Corps,[32] while not particularly targeted for "high risk" populations, or intended to facilitate the school to work transition, served a number of minority youngsters between the ages of 15 and 18. Most of the minorities served were blacks, Spanish and Native Americans. The services sought to, while attempting to conserve public lands and waters, provide short-term gainful employment (8-week summer program) and to provide educational content that dealt with the natural environment. In FY 1976, approximately 23,000 young men and women were employed in all fifty states. Marans, Driver, and Scott (1972)[33] in an early evaluation of the program, found that black and Native Americans were less satisfied with their experience than were others and that the 15 year olds were less satisfied than the 18 year old youngsters. The most positive findings were in the areas of quality of work assignments and development of positive work skills.

The Job Corps was established as part of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 and probably one of the more evaluated and surveyed programs. It was targeted to young men and women, aged sixteen to twenty-one, from low-income families. The lack of both adequate education and other skills needed to hold meaningful employment or successfully participate in regular school work was another eligibility requirement. In addition, the enrollee had to live in a poverty environment, be free of major medical or behavior problems, and have basic capabilities and a desire to complete the program.[34] The programs are basically residential and concentrate on providing comprehensive training geared toward basic education, skill training, and useful work experience. Support services include the provision of clothing, living and readjustment allowances, room and board, medical and dental care, and job placement.[35]

As a part of a broad range of national youth employment and training initiatives, the Job Corps has been expanded to reach a larger number (double) of high risk young people.[36] Among male enrollees, 45 percent report previous arrests; nearly 3 in 10 have convictions and 1 in 6 a prison record. A fifth of female enrollees report previous arrests and a tenth have had prior convictions. In fiscal year 1978, 71 percent of the enrollees were minorities, 86 percent high school dropouts, and almost 100 percent poor.[37] Targeting populations were changed to serve 14 and 15 year old youngsters and those with previous behavior and other problems. A majority of the enrollees report first having been advised of the Job Corps through friends and relatives. Only 17 percent heard first from the employment service, 11 percent from advertisements or articles, and the remainder from schools, probation officers, and other sources. Only 29 percent of those enrolled are female and this represents a decrease from 31 percent in fiscal 1977 despite expanded co-educational capacity.[39] For a comparison of Job Corps enrollees for fiscal year 1968 and 1978 see Table 1.[40]

Batton and Fraser[41] state that the effectiveness of the Job Corps was the subject of great debate in the 1960s, with several studies yielding mixed results; more recent studies point to more positive outcomes. They summarized studies done by Levitan and Johnson (1975)[42] and Taggart (1976)[43] and found that the Job Corps, according to these researchers, was the most ambitious of all federal manpower efforts and also one of the most costly. In addition to being costly, the Job Corps approach is more effective over a lengthy period of exposure. In 1974, a quarter of the enrollees left after less than 30 days; half did not stay the three months considered a minimum for completion and this was a problem for both the residential and non-residential center. In FY 1974, two-thirds of the program terminees were employed upon termination and a fifth either entered the military or went back to school.

Table 1. Characteristics of Job Corps Enrollees, Fiscal Years 1968 and 1978

(Percent distribution)

Characteristic	Fiscal Year 1968	Fiscal Year 1978
Income:		
Average family income	$3,300	$4,850
From families on public assistance	27	33
Education:		
High school dropouts	88	86
Less than sixth-grade reading achievement	67	50
Race and ethnic origin:		
White	30	29
Black	58	56
Hispanic	8	10
American Indian	2	3
Other minority race	1	2
Age of entry:		
16 years or under	30	23
17 years	27	25
18 to 21 years	43	52
Sex:		
Male	72	71
Female	28	29

Note: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

Retention rates showed a marked gain as did educational attainment. Levitan concluded that almost all studies found that the corpsmen were better off after the program as measured by earnings, educational level, motivation and work habits. He also found that the longer the stay, the greater the beneficial impacts seemed to be.[44]

The General Accounting Office's Report to the Congress (1979)[45] argues that the eligibility requirements established by the Job Corps are so broad that eligibility determinations are not very meaningful in identifying the target population. Consequently, youths enter the program without any meaningful determination that their home environment is harmful. This finding related to the substandard living conditions, deficient or disruptive home, potentially harmful spare time activities, and limited opportunities criteria as a condition of eligibility. Another significant citation was that about 70 percent of all youths who enter Job Corps do not graduate. Most youth who dropped out of the program left within 90 days.[46]

More space was given the discussion of Job Corps as a program because the program is viewed by many as a last resort training and employment service for "high risk" young men and women. Other programs deserve mention as models of targeting to youth populations that could be considered in the "high risk" category. During the period June 1974 to June 1976, the National Office for Social Responsibility developed and put into operation a Model Youth Work Experience Program under the U.S. Department of Labor, Offender Rehabilitation Division.[47] The program, located in the Oakland, California area was targeted toward delinquent and disadvantaged youth in increasing their employability through education, vocational training, work experience and counseling. The program included elements of both the Neighborhood Youth Corps in-school and out-of-school strategies and the Vocational Exploration in the Private Sector approach. Stipends were provided for both classroom and work site experience. Supportive services were established through relationships with health, mental health, legal assistance, and counseling agencies, as well as juvenile diversion programs, recreational organizations, and community and cultural agencies so that a comprehensive prescription approach could address the physical, social, and psychological needs of the enrollees. The authors state that an

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evaluation team determined that there was positive change in the measurement of attitudes and job satisfaction.[48]

The Work Incentive Program (WIN) authorized by amendments to Title IV of the Social Security Act in 1968, is designed to serve recipients of Aid to Families with Dependent Children and move them from welfare to work.[49] Administered jointly by the Department of Labor and Health, Education and Welfare, the program is designed to serve all persons over the age of 16 and offers training, employment, or other job preparatory services. Registration is mandatory and participation is only exempted through special consideration. Failure to comply results in denial of further welfare benefits. In fiscal 1978, the majority of WIN registrants (three-fourths) were women, somewhat more than half were white, about 9 percent were under 20 years of age and five and one-half percent were twenty to twenty-one years of age.[50] According to Barton and Fraser,[51] the findings of Richardson and Dunning,[52] younger enrollees (under 22) had higher drop-out and lower placement rates than did the 22 years and older participatns. The greatest barrier to placement of the younger enrollees (16-17) was felt to be age itself. The combination of laws, regulations, and restrictions impact the placement rate of those in this age group in meaningful jobs. Personal problems, arrest records, and poor previous employment records were not seen as barriers.

Another approach worthy of note, that addresses young parents is the Parents Preparing for Parenthood, a program located in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania that services young parents. Although there is no specific age limit, almost (95 percent) all of the program's enrollees are in their teens or early twenties. They may enter the program while pregnant or at any time after their baby's birth. Its services are intended to prevent mental disorders, developmental delay, and social behavior problems in young people who are considered to be at risk because of the age, social situation, mental status, or other problems. The program (Triple P), started in 1975, has two basic components. Counseling services and intensive psychotherapy, and basic, life skills, and prevocational education. The program serves 220 young women and is funded by a Part F grant, National Institute for Mental Health, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare.[53]

Another program, based in New York City, provided intervention services to fifty young unemployed black teenagers. Most were parents, on welfare, and in need of remedial assistance in the basic skills. The services included peer aides as models, job-hunting skills and tutoring. The program's objectives were to influence job-seeking behavior and employment, school behavior and educational planning and work behavior and attitudes towards work. The program was carried out by the Metropolitan Applied Research Center in cooperation with the Northside Center for Child Development.[54]

Two major Law Enforcement Administration (LEAA) programs, the Juvenile Delinquency Prevention Program and the Diversion of Youth from the Juvenile Justice System Program should be mentioned as "high-risk" target efforts. The Prevention Program and the Diversion Program both address adolescent populations and are intended to aid in the school to work transition. The Prevention Program is intended to develop and implement new approaches and methods to prevent juvenile delinquency by assisting non-profit youth serving agencies expand the social, cultural, educational and health services for youth who are in great danger of becoming delinquent. The Diversion Program is designed to serve those who have been apprehended by the police in the commission of a status offense or a felony. Its focus is on the development and testing of ways of diverting young offenders from involvement with the traditional juvenile justice system. A positive sense of self-worth and meaningful and productive work experiences are felt to be important objectives of both prevention and diversionary programs. Such assumptions are to be tested over time in order to determine what impact they have on reduction of youth crime or the employability of high-risk youth.[55]

Programs that are targeted to "high-risk" populations could expect to experience recruitment problems that are unique for such a group. One of the criticisms of Job Corps made by the General Accounting Office[56] is that current efforts at recruitment and selection do not serve the youths who need the services most, and that it has little assurance that it serves only the select type of youths that the Congress intended. Much of the early literature on recruitment, outreach, and community penetration, writes Mangum and Walth[57] deals with the inability of established agencies, such as the Employment Service, to relate to the disadvantaged, and the poor image which such agencies had in the communities in which the disadvantaged lived. Martin[58] notes that either implicitly or explicitly most projects have taken a neighborhood or area perspective when recruiting disadvantaged youth. Disadvantaged youth are usually concentrated in particular pockets, ghettos, and rural hollows and recruiters guide their efforts according to such orientation. Mangum and Walsh[59] add that the preferred method of recruitment was outreach, or assignment of specific project staff members to seek recruits on a face-to-face basis. They write that:

> This in turn meant that the recruiters should be those who were able to be "where the action is" without looking out of place. Thus, they had to be indigenous to the neighborhood or community, speak the same language as the enrollees, and have some standing with youth leaders who would otherwise give short shrift to establishment representatives.

Whether or not such recruitment methods are still valid as the most effective way to reach "hard-core" or "high-risk" targets is inconclusive. A number of outreach and recruitment channels are now being commonly used to reach certain populations. The SPEDY programs in the State of Minnesota use a wide range of recruitment methods to attract eligible youth to their programs. Program descriptions are sent to welfare recipients and welfare offices, schools and school counselors, school administrators, youth service agencies, parole agents and court service agencies. Ads are placed in newspapers and local radio spots and words are used that focus on "jobs," "work," and "kids." Posters are placed in strategic locations such as schools, government offices, youth centers, and other youth-frequented locations.[60] Certain projects use relationships to aid in their recruitment efforts. Striver (1967) found that Community Based Organizations employed recruitment methods that were proven useful. He writes that "from the beginning, the OIC recruitment policy has sought to bring the poorly equipped residents of the poverty areas into the program." However, in lieu of a large recruitment staff, OIC established close relationships with churches, public health centers, social worker groups, labor unions, Neighborhood Youth Corps, the City Civil Service Commission, Community Action Councils, and the State Department of Public Assistance in order to reach those in need.[61] Anderson[62] supports the community based agency effort by writing that recruiting activities by such organizations include not only the recruiting staff, but also advertising and community relation efforts. A variety of techniques are used to make the community aware of services such as speech making, pasting billboards, handing out leaflets, contacting other agencies, churches, and by visiting places of public assembly. Gibboney[63] advises that the Career Intern Program recruits through a School District Coordinator who knows who are dropouts, or who were identified as potential dropouts by school counselors. Rist[64] found that program entry for young participants occurred primarily through three means. School referrals, agency referrals, and through the youth's own initiative. Variations in these three approaches were used by each of the ten private sector programs. Operators of eight programs used (4 LEAs, 2 Public Non-Profit, 2 Private Non-Profit) relied heavily upon the local schools to help identify and refer youth. The approach that schools used to identify youth included: supplying lists of students who met eligibility criteria, counselors suggesting the program, teachers mentioning the program, and school-wide announcements via bulletins over the public address system.

Vogel[65] suggests a recruitment model that was used by the Apprenticeship Outreach Program that sought minority candidates. Contractual agreements to (a) the Urban League, which in turn subcontracted to individual local Urban League centers in different cities to operate Labor Education and Advancement Programs (LEAP), (b) the AFL-CIO Human Resource Development Institute (HRDI) which contracted with local AFL-CIO building trades councils, and (c) the Recruitment and Training Program, which develops local affiliates for such projects. Martin (1966)[66] found that one of the best methods of recruitment of targeted youth was to involve the youth presently in the program to recruit others of similar circumstances.

Recruitment of special populations for program services is not as easily accomplished, even when a variety of approaches are used by a particular project. Mangum and Walsh[67] found that the difficulties in recruitment of enrollees for the Job Corps was based primarily on three factors: (1) a reluctance on the part of many potential enrollees to leave their homes; (2) parental reservations due to often exaggerated horror stories about life in Job Corps centers; and (3) the high dropout rate of the program which kept the pressure on recruiters to find "new bodies."

According to the Employment and Training Report of the President (1979)[68] two contradicting concerns arise over Job Corps recruiting and screening procedures: (1) legitimate concern over red tape and paperwork, and (2) concern over selection procedures. If the procedures for reducing paperwork were made more simplistic, then it is possible that lax selectivity would increase the dropout rate. The General Accounting Office[69] pointed out that certain severe criteria for Job Corps selection make clear that the Congress intended the program to be a unique last resort program. They feel that recruiting practices should be stringent in order to assure that Job Corps serves only the disadvantaged population that Congress intended.[76] Another problem of recruitment is that of attracting female enrollees and poor white youth to Job Corps centers. It appears that current outreach efforts toward this end have not had a major impact on recruitment. It is somewhat obvious that no single recruitment strategy, no single service approach, or set of "trappings" will attract sub-groups of designated populations to a particular program.

Mangum, Morlock, Snedeker and Pines[71] write that every program undertaken to enhance the employability, employment and income of people must involve certain planning steps. A service need for a particular target population is determined by a set of assumptions. The authors add that:

> A political consensus emerges that a serious problem exists - a consensus more likely to be based on visceral feelings than on data. Solutions are designed, based on some mix of what has been tried with reasonable success, what selected research indicates, the judgments of influential policy-makers, and a range of vested interests.72

Where access points are located can be crucial in determining who takes advantage of program services. The planning process should include the identification of high density areas for specific target populations. Using such areas as access point, programs should be able to accomplish outreach to significant populations in need of targeted services. The location of an access point near a public housing project, in a shopping center, or in the middle of a low income, economically disadvantaged area populated with large numbers of youth will predetermine who will be served more effectively than a targeted outreach effort in itself.[73]

The question often considered in the employment and training field is "how do we reach those individuals who are most in need of services?" Mangum and Walsh note that this question usually begs another question and that is "which of the conditions besetting hard-core youth such as severe physhological problems, arrest and conviction records, drug and alcohol problems, lack of motivation, anti-social behavior, severe mental and physical handicaps can be treated by employment and training programs?"[74] Martin[75] states that "if additional criteria are to be imposed, such as proper motivation for work, normal intellectual functioning, or absence of any police or court record, then programs cannot hope to reach the most disadvantaged." Zuckerman[76] writes that for all of the concern with those most in need, there is a natural reluctance to serving those with severe handicaps and major barriers to employment. The risk of failure is higher. Program costs are higher. The poorest and most disadvantaged have less political support. He adds that the most disadvantaged are likely to be less appreciative of the services because they often are distrustful, skeptical and hostile toward government programs. Another serious deterrent to helping those most in need is that employers are often most reluctant to work with a program which provides service to people with severe problems.[77]

Most programs, directly targeted to "high-risk" youth do not claim to have been tremendously successful with a majority of those they serve. Mangum and Walsh assert that "with few exceptions, most programs directed solely towards the hard-core disadvantaged, or those that isolated the hard-core, have been failures....at least according to prevailing statistical norms."[78]

It is the exceptions and the successes that warrant documentation in order to support the notion that employment and training programs that serve the hard-core, in spite of their multiplicity of problems, do provide significant services for specifically targeted individuals. However, it is difficult to locate information on either successful or unsuccessful enrollees and what particular treatment and service over time led to that success or failure. Mangum and Walsh write that few attempts have been made to measure sociological gains; employment and training programs have been judged solely on their ability to accomplish economic goals...the reduction of structural unemployment, and the relief of cyclical unemployment.[79] Without such documentation, it is more difficult to determine just what sets of circumstances and conditions make for success with individuals within the same high-risk category and failure for another in that same sub-group. It could be that one was of a different motivational level, had a more positive attitude toward socializing institutions, or was afforded a different relationship within the program during the service period. When a particular program does indicate that its services have been meaningful for a large number of its enrollees or that it finds that it serves certain sub-groups much better than it does others, this information should be documented and analyzed. Foot and Stromquist[80] found in their study of the OIC Career Intern Program that out of school youths are not attracted to programs that require their return to a traditional high school. Their experience with the school system has been negative and they are more interested in alternative educational settings, particularly those that offer individualized attention. They found that in-school youths were willing to remain in school when offered a stipend. Out of school youths are interested in programs that afford concrete individually tailored work experience. They postulate that several factors influence program design for specific target populations and that these should be measured whenever possible, for it is clear that they are, either singly or in combination, responsible for a program's success in reaching certain populations. Programs that serve more than one particular target group and do not focus on an exclusive population ought to document their successes or failures and discern through study and analysis why one group or certain individuals belonging to sub-groups were served better than others. Wurzburg states that there are few surprises to the outreach efforts that prime sponsors use in implementing the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects. Employment Service and the schools are still the primary effort employed. Community based organizations enjoy little discernible edge over the more traditional outreach and enrollment services, in penetrating particular population sub-groups.[81] Martin as far back as 1969 argued for the use of community based organizations as an outreach strategy in order to reach specific sub-groups. He also asserted that experience with monetary stipends and social status reward systems proved to be factors in attracting and maintaining certain sub-group populations in employment programs.[82]

Taggart[83] states that "there is just no question that when you devote more resources on the individualized basis and in a setting which is more in relationship to work, and it's not the traditional failure syndrome but where youth can move at their own pace, you find that youth can learn at a faster rate than they do in traditional settings." He asserts that alternative educational programs can work for "high-risk" youth populations. Hutchins (1973)[84] in a study of male delinquents attending an alternative innovative high school that operated on an individualized basis found that they realized better academic success, developed more positive feelings of personal worth, more positive self-images, and had more positive attitudes toward school than did delinquent males who attended traditional high schools. Kammann (1972)[85] affirmed that "a choice among truly different education approaches would satisfy the diverse requirements and values of our society." The Career Intern Progrm's success with dropouts and potential drop-outs strongly support alternative (whether public, private, or community based) schools as one option in serving special targets. Fantini[86] says that alternative schools are needed in order to serve and satisfy a large dissatisfied minority or that they will disturb the climate in traditional schools for everyone. According to Hutchins[87] alternative programs should be specifically designed to help in the areas of student alienation, basic skills improvement, human relationships, motivation, career development and attendance and retention.

Within broad target groups such as economically disadvantaged, minorities, teenage parents, juvenile offenders, hard-core unemployed, male and female drop-outs, potential drop-outs, in-school and out-of-school youth, rural and urban youth and various age categories are a number of sub-groups that merit particular attention. In most SPEDY programs, communities where the number of applicants exceeded the number of slots, older youth, potential early school leavers, handicapped students, and emancipated youngsters were all given special consideration when job slots were being filled.[88] Wurzburg found that the problems in using just income guidelines to determine who is eligible for YEDPA services are: "(A) that even with the highest screening and intake procedures, ineligibles can get through if they try hard enough, (B) parent's income is no longer determining what happens to kids: drugs, crime, etc., (C) data collected is not always valid - it is difficult, expensive, and time consuming to verify data. It is difficult to sort out all the variables, especially out in the field."[89] The category of age presents a different set of problems. "Indeed the age range encompassed in most government statistics on youth employment (16-24) contains several cohorts whose labor market situations are quite different. Sixteen and seventeen year olds, 18 and 19 year olds, and 20 to 24 year olds present different unemployment and labor force participation patterns," writes Richard de Lone.[90] The groups termed juvenile offenders, teenage parents, substance abusers, and hard-core unemployed appear to be easy to identify for these are more highly visible. Parents, teachers and counselors, police and the courts, and social agencies are in contact more often with youth who fall into such sub-groups and usually show much concern, at least initially, for such youth. The U.S. Department of Labor's report on knowledge development planning for youth initiatives concludes that there is copious literature indicating a statistical relationship between joblessness and juvenile delinquency. They add, however, that there is no large-scale systematic experiment to determine the effectiveness of the employment approach in reducing crime and recidivism.[91] Zuckerman is concerned that analysis of proficiency skills which are needed in the labor market; attitudes toward work, physical and mental handicaps, and other real barriers to employment be an integral part of the targeting and service development plan. He asserts that characteristics such as those both determine real need and what special services are indicated in order to help high-risk (those most in need) overcome barriers to compensate for past deficiencies.[92]

Mangum and Walsh raise the ultimate question, should all youth with severe psychiatric and psychological problems, chronic offender records, histories of disruptive behavior, drug, alcohol and motivational problems be barred from employment and training programs?[93] Taggart[94] says no. It's a very expensive investment, but for society as a whole, employment and training services seem to pay off. He cites the reductions in arrests during Job Corps and then six months after Job Corps. He adds that these reductions "given the costs of arrests and convictions, pay back the society almost half of the Job Corps' costs alone." Zuckerman says that serving those most in need will require more money and incur more risks of failure. It will require more comprehensive supportive and medical services. It will require legal, transportation, and even housing services, but that we must target for and serve those with severe problems.[95]

Certain findings related to targeting services to "high-risk" young men and women, although very modest in scope, would seem to warrant the following observations. There appears to be several areas that need further exploration about how to better identify and recruit high-risk populations of young people for employment and training services. In the past, most targeting strategies were the result of political concensus and not necessarily because of substantial research, evaluation and planning. At the present time, we know little about how to effectively serve a significant number of sub-groups who generally fall into the "hard-core" or "high-risk" disadvantaged group. Populations often addressed, such as low income family members, minority group membership, academic underachievers, 14 to 21 year old potential in-school early leavers, out-of-school unemployed 16 to 19 year olds, youthful substance abusers, juvenile and young adult offenders, teenage parents and unwed mothers, under motivated, and inner-city or rural segments are usually described in vague and ambiguous terms. The recruitment and selection of such individuals for employment and training services have, in the part, been shared by a number of agencies and organizations such as welfare and social agencies, public and private education institutions, juvenile and criminal systems, religious groups, community based organizations, and certain government agencies at the national, state, and local levels. The documentation of successful efforts at attracting and retraining such populations is sparse and dimly defined. The literature addresses, for the most part, who is being served in the broad categories, but fails to identify the number of severely disadvantaged individuals served within those categories. Another area where information appears to be, at best, limited is that of "how" such youth are being served. What works best for delinquents, teenage parents, 14 to 16 year old offenders, 17-19 year old substance abusers, 16-21 year old out-of-school hard-core unemployed males, females, blacks, whites, other minorities, urban dwellers, rural inhabitants, and any number of a combination of demographic circumstances? Can all troubled and severely high-risk youth be served by employment and training programs? Should services and programs be provided in residential settings for certain sub-groups for out-of-school youth, both male and female, include meaningful work experiences along with classroom instruction? If so, in what areas, to what degree, and for how long a period of time? What part does age, race, sex, and family level of income play in the prevention of juvenile delinquency and criminal activity for 14-16 year old males, females, young adults, and certain minorities? Does one service strategy work best for a particular sub-group, given similar sets of circumstances and conditions, than for that same type of group in different geographic settings and areas? It would be reasonable to say that knowledge gaps are evident as they concern each of the above questions.

Other serious questions also might be worthy of discussion. How comprehensive should services be within a particular service program, for a particular sub-group, for a specific age category, and who should provide the services? Can the private sector be more successful in serving a particular high-risk population than another? Can community based organizations serve a special group at a particular point in time more efficaciously than another service provider? Can alternative schools, both in the public and private sector, provide more adequate services to in-school potential drop-outs or can they better serve older drop-outs who want to return but not to traditional settings? Do stipends, opportunities for success, and "real-world" experiences work better for some high-risk youth than for others? How many chances should high-risk youth have before determining that employment services are not useful for particular age groups or categories? What kinds of recruitment strategies work best for what sub-group and who should be the recruiters? Should all programs be integrated racially, ethnically, sexually, and employ cross-age real life learning concepts? What role does sound management principles play in the degree of success or failure in meeting program objectives? How much collaboration should there be in the targeting, recruitment, and retention process? If we know very little about the first group of questions, it would be safe to say that we know even less about the second group as they concern youth with such severe handicaps that they merit the classification, "high-risk."

Recommendations for Policy

1. Targeting should definitely be continued and intensified as a method of assuring that specific youth populations with the most severe handicaps are reached and served.

2. Targeting to "high-risk" populations should be predicated upon a particular program strategy. Special problem areas should be identified as well as the sub-groups to be served so that a multiplicity of needs, indigenous to such groups, can be addressed based upon sound research and evaluation findings.

3. High-risk yough should be targeted to both "alternative" and "traditional" program delivery systems in order to afford them the most effective service treatment. These programs could be both individualized and open ended or highly structured and disciplined, but according to the individual needs of those served.

4. Any method of recruitment that has proved successful for a particular age group, sex population, or specific behavior pattern should be employed as a means of reaching and serving high-risk populations for which the target strategy is intended.

5. Targeting should be aimed at those high-risk individuals who are members of racial or ethnic sub-groups within broader hard-core disadvantaged categories such as Hispanic, black, Native American, rural, and migrant youth. Services to such populations should be comprehensive in nature and offer medical, psychological, child care, monetary, housing, legal, transportation, and motivational and attitudinal support as well as remediation, prevocation, and employment services.

6. Targeting should continue to address the hard-core young man or woman who has been served once before, twice, three times or more by existing employment and training structures but still has not had his or her needs met at the present time. An in-depth analysis of proficiency skills, personal needs, and educational levels of such individuals should be conducted before providing additional employment and training services.

7. Targeting efforts should involve the private, public and community based sectors in the recruiting of and the servicing efforts for high-risk youth populations.

8. All employment and training programs, whatever the major targeting effort, should include at least 10% high-risk sub-group members in order to discern the effectiveness of such service strategy for that segment. Or, stated in another way, all employment and training programs that have their major targeting emphasis toward high-risk sub-groups should

include non-high-risk populations in their service delivery in order to measure what works best for whom.

Suggested Areas for Further Study

Although, at the present time, carefully structured programs designed to demonstrate certain youth serving concepts and test their effectiveness are being implemented and evaluated that include high-risk populations, it is suggested that additional studies directed at that group would be in order.

If additional studies are undertaken, the following recommendations might be worthy of consideration.

1. Study the interaction of service providers and high-risk sub-group individuals so that insight might be gained from the direct observation of the roles service providers play in the development of the individual's negative or positive behavior as it relates to training and employment.
2. Include more participant observer studies of sub-groups in programs in order to gain knowledge of the individual's behavior in various settings and service strategies. This ought to include the collecting of pertinent information about changes that occur in the individual as the intensity of peer interaction increases or decreases over a period of time.
3. Careful field studies should be conducted in order to identify those elements in an employment and training program that can be considered as viable service strategies for high-risk youth.
4. Studies about how best to measure success for high-risk sub-groups as contrasted with broader economically disadvantaged populations should be undertaken.

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CHAPTER FOUR

Inducement to Service: To Test or Not to Test

"The testing movement in the United States had been a success...", states David C. McClelland of Harvard University rather factiously. In his article, "Testing for Competence Rather Than for Intelligence," McClelland contends that even though astronomical sums are spent on testing by schools, training programs, colleges and employers, testing itself has had quite a negative effect on the lives of young people. He states emphatically that tests have been given unwarranted power over the lives of young people by stamping some of them qualified and others less qualified for a variety of aspirations, endeavors, and requests. Most importantly, McClelland points out the primary disservice that tests have shared, which is responsibility of screening out black, Spanish-speaking, and other minority applicants to schools, jobs and training programs.[1]

Even in light of the existing evidence which points to the danger of testing because of its potential abuse, the problem is more complex than simply to test or not to test; therefore, the overall purpose of assessment needs to be examined.

The following points briefly summarize the most significant findings of the study by Regis Walther, Analysis and Synthesis of DOL Experience in Youth Transition to Work Programs,[2] regarding the field of testing/assessment.

1. Assessments can be used for three quite different purposes:

    (a) As part of the decision making process which determines who gets admitted to a particular training program or work assignment, or gets referred to a particular job;

    (b) As part of the vocational exploration process to get a better understanding of the youth's abilities, interests and values; and

(c) As part of an evaluation of program effectiveness.

2. Test results should not be permitted to limit unnecessarily the options available to youth. Many tests are reasonably good measures of the threshold ability to perform a particular task, but scores beyond this threshold have little capacity to predict work or training performance. In such instances the test scores should not be used beyond the level for which validity can be established.

3. Tests can be used very profitably to increase understanding about how the charecteristics of the individual relate to the requirements and satisfaction potential of available jobs and the problems which may be created by low test scores. In some situations, it is useful to give the youth practice in test taking so that they can improve their score and avoid unfair discrimination based on their lack of experience with the particular type of test.

4. Tests can be used successfully for evaluating program effectiveness. Standardized reading tests as a measure of the effectiveness of remedial education programs is an obvious example. Tests can also provide useful measures of attitude change when this is the goal of the program.

Similarly, Backer[3] contends that given certain program goals, it may be necessary to restrict the flow of enrollees through preselection. For example, in a training program from which only those with at least sixth grade math skills are likely to benefit, assessment might be used to screen out all those with less than the required math ability.

Such selection is done, for example, in the impressively successful Training and Technology program in Oak Ridge, Tennessee. Presumably those excluded would be channeled to another program or given the remedial education necessary to achieve a sixth grade math level. In other cases, limited program resources mean that only a certain number of enrollees can be accommodated at one time. Thus, it becomes necessary to restrict the flow of those entering the program. Assessment might then be used to select those most likely to succeed. In either case, it is important that variables assessed truly are relevant to successful outcomes, and are measured as accurately as possible. Assessment should not be a means simply of keeping a service effort to a manageable size; random selection would achieve this goal just as well. Use of assessment tools must reflect a commitment to provide the best possible services to program applicants. Even accurate selection of those most likely to succeed, e.g., in a training program, might be challenged on the grounds that it may discriminate against those who need the program's services most. Clear statements of program goals are required in order to decide how assessment can best be used for admission decisions.

The effort reported in this chapter examines the area of testing by addressing the following questions:

1. What kinds of tests are used in programs which serve high risk youth?

2. Do the identified tests have the effect of screening people out?

3. What are the pitfalls of testing?

4. How can tests be utilized as assessment tools rather than as means of excluding needy prospective program participants? What are the alternatives to testing?

Programs: Assessment and Research Findings

Addressing the question what kinds of tests are used in programs which serve high-risk youth, the response is that there are as many tests as there are programs. The issue is what kinds of tests should be used by programs which serve high risk youth? This section reviews studies relating to testing, programs and their assessment techniques, and briefly test descriptions. Given the needs that exist with the high-risk youth population, the reviewer's primary objective is to identify the assessment techniques which do in fact significantly pose the threat of screening out the needy.

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A Study of Government Training Programs Under the Manpower Development and Training Act[4]

Government training programs established under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 were based on the premise that a substantial number of people are unemployed or underemployed because they lack the skills demanded in the job market.

The purpose of the study which is being reviewed was to examine the selection criteria and mechanisms by which applicants were accepted or rejected for training.

According to the study findings, 70% of those persons rejected by MDTA were black. This finding should be considered in conjunction with the scores obtained on ability tests administered by the Employment Service. These show that in respect to most of the component elements of the General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) the scores of those rejected for training fell substantially below comparable scores of persons accepted for training. The majority of persons rejected for the programs, when interviewed, expressed a continuing interest in training. The tests were found to be the most important criterion, in some cases the sole criterion, of selection; thus, screening out those applicants who demonstrated the desire to receive, as well as the need for, training.

Apprenticeship System[5]

The Center for the Study of Human Resources at the University of Texas, conducted research in the area of apprenticeship. In general, apprenticeship can be defined as a method of learning a manual or technical skill trade through on-the-job training and related classroom instruction. Four major industries utilize apprenticeship training: manufacturing, construction, utilities, and service (maintenance).

The administration of and responsibility for the apprenticeship training system rests with Joint Apprenticeship Committees (JAC), which are local bodies comprised of representatives from management and labor.

JACs develop their own entry and training requirements for respective trades under their jurisdictions; however, entry prerequisities are fairly universal for the selection of trainees. JACs call for the following requirements and have point systems to select trainees:

- Successful passing of an aptitude exam. These exams vary by crafts and by locals. Some locals use standardized tests such as the General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) or the Differential Aptitude Test (DAT). Others have tailor-made tests designed to meet their specifications.
- Submission of personal documents. Documents include birth certificates, high school transcripts, and proof of physical fitness.
- An oral interview conducted by JAC representatives. The purpose of this interview is to determine such factors as the candidate's attitude toward work, his willingness to take supervision, and his full understanding of mutual expectations.

In theory, the number of points a candidate earns, his rank score, and the number of available craft openings determine entry into a program. There are numerous variations, however, on this general theme.

The findings of the study revealed that apprenticeship graduates generally were more steadily employed and earned greater salaries than other journeymen. Also, apprenticeship graduates tended to advance to supervisory positions more rapidly and more often than journeymen who enter industry by other routes.

The limitation of this study is that one cannot conclude that those individuals who were rejected for training based on the inability to pass an aptitude exam would not have reaped the same benefits if they had been given the opportunity to participate in the apprenticeship program.

Career Intern Program[6]

The CIP is an OIC venture geared to service the high-risk youth. Participants for this program are assessed; however, the test scores in no way influence acceptance or rejection to the program. The CIP utilizes the SAT math and reading tests, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices (test of non-verbal reasoning), Rotter's Internal-External Scale, Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory, and Super's Career Development Inventory. The tests and inventories provided a baseline for assessing later intern achievement and attitude change in comparison with a control group.

The assessment technique in the CIP is a clear example of test utilization for the purpose of meeting the individual needs of the trainee, continual program update, and monitoring of student progress as opposed to screening out needy clients.

Testing and Fair Employment: Fairness and Validity of Personnel Tests for Different Ethnic Groups: A Study[7]

This study examines the issue of testing for employment selection. The validity of tests for different ethnic and racial groups is discussed. Summirized below are the major findings and recommendations of this study.

Major Findings

1. Selection procedures, especially tests, must be examined for their equitability.

2. General studies of the mental abilities of racial and ethnic groups have indicated that some minority groups typically perform worse on many tests than does the general population; therefore, using test scores as sole criterion for acceptance is inequitable.

3. The degree of validity of tests was found to differ between ethnic groups.

4. The test may be valid for all ethnic groups, but may discriminate unfairly among them.

5. The test may be valid in one ethnic group but not another.

6. The test may be valid in no ethnic group.

7. Non-verbal tests may not necessarily be more accurate for use with minority ethnic groups.

8. Job training may improve scores on tests which might be used for selection.

The major recommendation reported in this study is that tests proposed for personnel selection should be studied separately in the specific ethnic groups and job settings for which they are to be used.

Even though the major thrust of this study was on personnel selection, the major findings regarding testing are generic in nature; therefore, the findings offer much to the study of tests with high risk youth whether the testing is for program selection, job placement or school entrance.

Testing, Counseling, and Supportive Services: Breakthrough for Disadvantaged Youth[8]

The reviewed report seeks to describe the major features of assessment, counseling, and supportive services as reported in documents produced during the period 1962-65 by the Experimental and Demonstration (E&D) projects for disadvantaged youth funded under the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA).

The findings in the report, regarding testing, uncovered many inconsistencies with respect to the individual projects (25). The Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS) was administered selectively by several projects, making it second only to the General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB) of the tests used by the projects. However, within each project, the WAIS seldom was administered except for special problems requiring extensive diagnostic exploration, while the GATB was given to as many youth as would take it.

The findings also indicate that the selection of tests and testing programs seemed more determined by factors of expediency than by a careful and comprehensive evaluation of the merit and worth of available and relevant tests.

As a result of the haphazardness of the testing programs, a large number of youth dropped out of the projects during the intake phase, which included extensive psychological evaluation and a psychiatric interview. In a later follow-up study, some trainees described the depth interviews as insulting, silly, irrelevant, or offensive and intrusive at the Citizens Committee on Youth (CCYO), Cincinnati, Ohio.

Reported in this study, three projects used test scores in determining admission to their training services. Applicants of very low intelligence were rejected. Philadelphia's JEVS, however, found that many trainees testing at well below average intelligence performed at acceptable standards in its workshop.

The major conclusion in the report was that where projects are organized to provide a multiplicity of services, depending on client needs, there is little need for selection testing.

Pitfalls of Testing

Throughout the literature, there runs a consistent thread of evidence that assessment always involves cost. Backer points out that, "Effort is expended in the process itself, e.g., time for testing, time for scoring, time for interpretation, time for feedback of results, cost of materials used, etc. There may be some more subtle side effects or hidden costs as well." In addition to the most obvious limitations, briefly summarized below are the pitfalls and in some cases danger of testing:

1. Measurement does not always provide information that helps:

   (a) A client to understand himself better

   (b) His counselor to find him a better job

(c) A program manager with information to identify ways of improving services.9

2. Shortcomings of traditional paper-and-pencil tests:

   (a) Most traditional paper-and-pencil tests are similar to classroom examinations with which many disadvantaged persons have a history of failure, and which therefore, may make them feel anxious and uncomfortable.

   (b) Many of these tests have written directions at a rather high reading level which must be understood by the testee if measurements are to be valid.

   (c) Individual test items also may be at a relatively high reading level and may reflect cultural content of which the disadvantaged have little knowledge.

   (d) Item content of tests designed for children but administered to disadvantaged adults may be simple enough in reading level but uninteresting or insulting. This can seriously damage motivation to perform.

   (e) Many disadvantaged persons have inadequate experience with tests of any kind, and so do not have the "test wiseness" important to yielding test results that fairly estimate characteristics/ capabilities.

   (f) Many tests do not seem to bear any significant relationship to the individual characteristics pertinent to job success for most of the jobs the disadvantaged will be seeking.10

3. Tests are often used more for expediency than for their merit.

4. Tests often discriminate against minorities.[12]

5. Many tests are reasonably good measures of the threshold ability to perform a particular task, but scores beyond this have little capacity to predict work or training performance.[13]

Alternatives to Testing

What's new in manpower program assessment is certainly a matter of interpretation. Some of the techniques have been under development for several years. What is really new about them as compared to traditional devices is that all have been specially designed to measure a disadvantaged population. Some of these less formal and nontest assessment measures are as follows:[14]

--the work sample technique as a meaningful alternative to paper-and-pencil tests

--the behavior sample as a means of assessing job-required behavioral skills

--the JEVS-Philadelphia training and technical assistance program for disseminating and implementing the work sample

--the TOWER system of work samples as an example of both developmental research and dissemination from the rehabilitation field

--the Educational Testing Service battery of assessment devices for disadvantaged youth, as an example of how the paper-and-pencil test format can be extended to assessment of the disadvantaged

--ETS's systematic development of criteria for validating assessment tools to be used in a particular manpower program

--the Biographical Information Blank (BIB), a useful assessment tool that relies on information that can be collected and verified easily

--the Colorado Manpower Laboratory Research Manual as an example of how newly-developed instruments can be presented in final research reports to facilitate wider use

--development of the Tolerance for Bureaucratic Structure (TBS) scale as an example of how both theory and practical experience can contribute to the creation of a measurement device

--USES and Psychological Corporation pretesting orientation materials for increasing test wiseness and motivation, and decreasing test anxiety, among disadvantaged examinees

--the NATB as a viable alternative to the traditional manpower assessment tool, the GATB

--decentering as a promising technique for constructing assessment tools that "speak the language" of the disadvantaged.

The most promising assessment tools developed seem to be: (1) the work sample technique as developed by the Jewish Employment and Vocational Service in Philadelphia and the Experimental Manpower Laboratory at Mobilization for Youth in New York, and (2) the paper-and-pencil test battery for disadvantaged youth developed by the Educational Testing Service. Aside from their very real application potential, these two research efforts at three institutions seem outstanding because they have done more than merely create new assessment techniques. JEVS-Philadelphia has greatly increased the implementation of the work sample by its large scale dissemination and technical assistance program. ETS has creatively tackled the problem of developing supportable criteria for measuring the success of its own creation, as part of an overall research strategy that provides an excellent model for test construction.[15]

Recommendations for Policy

1. Tests should not be used as the sole criteria for admission to or exclusion from a program.

2. Aggressive measures should be taken to seek alternatives to paper-and-pencil tests.

3. Assessment techniques should include performance evaluations.

4. Participants/trainees should be given orientation sessions prior to testing.

5. Physical plants should be conducive to testing; therefore testing environment should be carefully evaluated.

6. Test monitors/administrators should receive inservice training, e.g., "How to relax the test taker."

7. Assessment instruments should be continually updated.

8. Tests should be directly correlated with goals and objectives of the training program.

9. Alternative methods of assessment should be sought particularly with minorities or in cases of language barrier problems with clients.

10. Tests should not be used to limit options available to youth.

Suggested Areas for Further Research

1. The evidence in this chapter is consistent and convincing that testing can be used as a mechanism for precluding individuals from assessing programs and services; however, it should also be noted that a quality assessment program could in fact encourage access to service. The available research is quite limited in this area and should be the foremost consideration for further research.

2. Studies designed to examine ways of promoting better linkages between agencies such as DOL and Social and Rehabilitation Services in the testing area.

3. Continual development of assessment tools for the disadvantaged population.

4. Research conducted to study the correlation between test scores and actual performance level.

5. Methods of decreasing the time and cost of effective assessment.

6. Validity studies for new assessment techniques.

7. Development of flexible standardized assessment techniques that can be adapted to the local conditions or needs.

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CHAPTER FIVE

Programs Structured to Mirror Real World Choices

What do we know about how programs can be structured to mirror real world choices? How can we insure that participants appreciate the long-run consequences of their program participation?

The questions in this policy area are practical in meaning yet philosophical in essence. Why wouldn't researchers, educators and other human resource workers want to know more about those immeasurable, unpredictable, elusive, affective elements which would insure a more intensely successful program for high-risk youth participants?

The phrase to be mindful of is "immeasurable, unpredictable, elusive, affective elements." When we start conceptualizing "real world choices" we slip in and out of personal perspectives. For what is a "real world choice" for one youth, one staff member, one researcher, one reviewer is not so for another individual. Also when we try to enumerate or put parameters around a list of long-run consequences "to be appreciated" again we encounter personal bias. Who is to say, who is to predict that which "will be appreciated by a person's involvement in a program," except the person involved?

At this point, we might lean toward longitudinal studies or personal interviews or a daily observation mechanism to help ferret out an appreciation factor, yet even then we cannot be sure.

If a review of programs that "mirror real world choices" is to go forward, it will be absolutely paramount to start with a definition, a definition of a real world choice. After the delineation is made, an historical perspective will be given, followed by a study of youth programs to see if in fact they have component activities to aid youth in making choices.

Definition

A program which could be considered structured to mirror real world choices, so that participants will understand the consequences of their involvement, is one which has at least three (3) out of the six (6) following components, units, characteristics, goals or objectives:

1. A Making Career-Decision Unit in which students gain self-perception of their abilities, know the characteristics and requirements of different occupations and are able to link their interests and abilities to jobs.

2. A part-time or summer job experience, including lessons, training and courses taken outside of classroom.

3. Communication and computation units connected with decision-making, information processing and employment seeking skills.

4. Objectives in practicing positive and effective work habits, using initiative, taking-risks and assuming and accepting responsibility.

5. Hands-on experiences in a variety of skill areas and/or actual employment with a knowledgeable and skilled craftsman or professional.

6. Units and/or objectives which train, encourage and enhance entrepreneurships.

Historical Perspective

In 1963 the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) was amended to allow youth to participate in on-the-job (OJT) training programs as well as classroom training programs.[1]

The Economic Opportunities Act (EOA) put stress on improving the employability of high risk youth. EOA established the Neighborhood Youth

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Corps (NYC) a work experience program and the Job Corps, a training and remedial education program.

With the advent of Comprehensive Employment and Training Act in 1973 (CETA) consolidated training and employment activities were placed under one authority to be administered by state and local prime sponsors.

In 1977, the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act (YEDPA)[2] expanded the level and range of services available to youth. Activities under this act were to yield new data, new insight into the needs and types of services that youth require in various areas among which three are job creation, training and job development.

Work Experience (WE) authorized under the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (EOA) is intended to provide economically disadvantaged youth with some income and actual experience with a public or nonprofit employer. The three major components of the work experience are: (1) In-School Work Experience that was meant to provide disadvantaged high risk youth with exposure to work and to influence potential dropouts to stay in school until graduation by giving them part-time jobs during the school term. One of the assumptions implicated in the design of the Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) is that work is an inherently valuable activity and that job training and related activities will reduce involvement in socially undesirable activities. (2) Out-of-School Work Experience, that was intended to give youth over 16 years old and who were out of school, employment opportunities and some training to enhance their future employability. The program was viewed as having positive benefits to be gained from being in the work place and actually performing on the job. (3) Summer Work Experience, intended to give youth summer jobs thereby making it more likely that they return to school.

The summer youth program has two major criticisms: Failure to provide adequate supervision, materials and instruction, and lack of success in emphasizing employability development.[3]

Young Adult Conservation Corps (YACC) is authorized by Title VIII of CETA. YACC is designed to give employment for 12 months as well as other benefits to 12 to 23 year olds in conservation work.

Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Projects (YCCIP) was intended to be a work experience program designed to serve out-of-school youth in projects to benefit the local community.

Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects (YIEPP)[4] - Economically disadvantaged youth between the ages 16-29 years are eligible for this program which provides part-time employment during the school term and full-time during the summer. The youth participating in this program must attend school, achieve minimim standards, and perform on the job.

Stated objectives of each of the above mentioned youth programs as well as the concomitant and assumed goals are in keeping with the definition of programs mirrored to reflect real-world choices, especially the employment component, hands on activities, and practical applications of the in-school work to the on-the-job experiences.

PROGRAMS STRUCTURED TO MIRROR REAL-WORLD CHOICES

Youth Enterprise Development Corporation

"The strategy developed here is one of stimulating opportunities for youth to gain experience in youth-run enterprises and to be instructed and coached in the skills of running a business. There is throughout an emphasis on youth participation and responsibility. At the same time, however, there is a need for adult sponsorship and assistance if these ventures are to be successful enough to be beneficial."[5] These youth operated enterprises provide outlets for youth leadership abilities as well as training in management and entrepreneurship. Involved in this program structure are decision-making skills using initiative and risk-taking, building on interests and abilities, and numerous other objectives which mirror real world choices. Youth Enterprise Development Corporations are still in their pilot stage.

Regularizing Odd Jobs is a pilot program strategy to help urban youth achieve the goals of seeking, obtaining and retaining employment. "To achieve this goal it is recommended to regularize odd jobs."[6] The idea is to employ youth on a full-time, year-round basis to provide specified services under contract. Examples of services to be provided would be maintenance and repair, carpet, window and attic cleaning, painting, snow removal, lawn mowing, and addressing and mailing. The evidence of real-world choices mirrored in the structure of this pilot program is clear: opportunities for motivation, upgrading through training, participation and teamwork, hands-on employment with knowledgeable supervision as well as decision-making opportunities.

Jobs for Youth - Vocational Foundation, Inc., Models[7]

"A great many more strong, employer-centered job placement services must be established to open the door for youths to the real world of work and to help them negotiate the private sector work system. These services emphasize the value of initial, full-time jobs in the development of work habits, work skills, and career opportunities -- rekindles the youth's motivation to learn relevant skills, (and) to gain independence."[8]

In reviewing this program's objectives and structure, real-world choice opportunities are certainly involved. The emphasis is on entry-level jobs in which the youthful participants can succeed with small- and medium-sized employers. The young person has opportunity to make decisions and show his reliability and capability, thereby gaining raises through increased responsibility. Orientation is the key word in this program. It includes descriptions on how to hunt for jobs, prepare for interviews, and fill out applications. Also stressed are aptitudes, interests, abilities and qualifications. A strong education component is indicated for this model youth program.

Young Ex-Offender Transition Service (Safer Foundation Model)[9]

This specialized transition for youthful ex-offenders, aged 14 to 21, would incorporate the following elements: a youth program to raise skills to those competitive in the job market; a job development and employer service unit; a remedial and individualized program; peer group interaction and an orientation to the world of work. "Satisfactory performance and punctuality should be rewarded by bonuses and poor performance and lateness by docking, in accordance with most work place rules of conduct. Clients should be dropped from the program for failing to adhere to work rules which govern absences, tardiness, comportment and dress."[10]

This program has many facets grounded in the real-world choice mechanism, because its basic concepts puts education before employment and uses remedial education as a screening device. There is also preparation for work and social transition. More time is needed to gain further insight into this model's effectiveness in reflecting real-world choice. However, the possibilities are many and challenging.

The Career Intern Program (CIP)[11] is structured to acquaint students with the world of work. This program replicated in five cities is an outgrowth of the national manpower training program entitled Opportunities Industrialization Centers, Inc., (OIC). Interns in the CIP take part in a Career Counseling Seminar which "assists students to understand career information, develop self-awareness, explore career possibilities, and cope more successfully with diverse social situations."[12] Illustrative topics covered are: identifying present career interests; deciding on career information needed; rational decision-making; predicting consequences; keeping the options open; and what kind of decider are you.

> "Neither CIP nor, probably, any other program can guarantee students success in life. The school of the intern's choice may not admit them, scholarship money may not stretch far enough. Labor market conditions may mean unemployment, long periods of employment in youth jobs, a slower rise to more rewarding positions, and being unable to move from job to job or from occupation to occupation. More broadly, success in life may be limited by personal losses and disappointments. Accepting the limitations may require adjustment. Broader socio-political conditions affecting recreation, housing, health, transportation and educational opportunities may limit success in life.
>
> What, then, can CIP responsibly promise in preparing a young person for success in life? Perhaps most central are the

> characteristics--both attitudinal and cognitive--that help people to plan ahead, to be ready to act on opportunities, and to have the ability to keep trying rather than wilt at an early disappointment."[13]

This program strives from inception to completion to mirror the real world.

The Career Exploration Program (CEP)[14] is designed to expand a youth's knowledge of career alternatives enabling him to select, and plan for a suitable career based on individual interests and abilities. "To succeed, the program must entail a variety of employers and a surplus of jobs in a variety of categories."[15]

In keeping with the definition of programs structured to reflect real world choices, CEP fits very well. Communication and computation academic units, career decision-making opportunities, and employment seeking skills are the emphasis.

"The Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) In-School Program, places emphasis on objectives such as greater knowledge of the world about the individual youth and what that world has to offer, as well as whether the enrollee is capable of taking advantage of new opportunities. This can be transferred in three categories: Knowledge of Career Alternatives, Knowledge of Work Standards and Habits, and Knowledge of the Systems."[16]

Mirrored in this program are definite structures to help high-risk youth gain in ability to make real world choices. Of particular interest is the Suggested Outline of a School/Work Plan.[17] One major point that is in keeping with our original definition of making real world choices is that enrollees in this program are guided to make commitments as they initially plan for short-term periods with the option to reassess the plan based on their changing needs.

A review of Worksite Activity Under the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act[18] reveals that the intent of this project was to gain a first hand observation of what was transpiring at the work sites. The main objectives were to find out wages being paid the youth, kind of supervision, attendance and punctuality, level of enthusiasm or boredom and the quality of products coming from their work. It is clear that, in part, at least, insight could be gained concerning the youth's decision-making abilities as well as their oral or written appreciation or non-appreciation of long-run consequences of their past program involvement.

In 1978, the Genesse Intermediate School District[19] examined over 500 youth between 14 and 21 years of age involved in the program. Significant gains were reported for their skills in exploring careers, making decisions and planning to reach chosen career goals. In addition, a 75% increase in the level of coping skills for school and work settings were found as a result of a systematic delivery of twelve one-hour modules. These modules are reflective of skills, strategies and abilities needed in the real world.

Work experience provided youth with income to help keep them in school and job experiences which helped prepare them for future employment. The emphasis was on making decisions and planning to reach chosen career goals.

The Vocational Exploration Program (VEP)[20] is designed to expose disadvantaged youth to the world of work providing opportunities for them to be exposed to principles of business operations, labor management relations, collective bargaining and the free enterprise system. An interesting part of the VEP is that each subcontractor "must design a program that involves youth in many of the occupations existing today and include an orientation to many of the forces active in the world of work."[21] In short, a major thrust of this program is to strengthen the ability of high-risk youth in making real world choices.

A detailed manual for manpower training programs dealing with youth can be found in In-School Youth Manpower: A Guide to Local Strategies and Methods.[22] The information for the manual was gathered through a survey and analysis of innovative In-School Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) programs which have helped high-risk disadvantaged youth complete high school and improve their employability.

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The areas of emphasis in these programs are: Self-Image Development; Vocational Skills; Enrollee Involvement; Income Maintenance; Community Responsibility; Academic Skills; Career Exploration; and Workmanship Training. It is evident from these areas mentioned that the dominant factors and objectives to be instituted into these programs are those which will aid participants in making real-world choices.

"Under the supervision of professional staff members, the enrollees participate actively in program decision-making and implementation. By involving the enrollee in the decision-making process, it may be expected that their personal commitment to have the program succeed will increase."[23]

The program's emphasis on the enrollee making his own decisions reinforce the enrollee's ability to solve his own problems, be more responsible for his class work, his job, and to take greater initiative in his planning for successful future employability.

Pursuant to a review of the literature of this policy area, the researcher followed a definite plan of action. That is, first, a definition was given as to the characteristics of criteria that programs would have to meet in order to be considered "programs structured to mirror real world choices." Second, more than forty (40) programs dealing with the high-risk youth population were reviewed. It was decided that unless a program met at least three (3) out of the six (6) criteria, it would not be useful for citation in this particular review.

Eleven (11) youth programs spanning a variety of models are the subject of this present analyzation. It is to be noted again, that these programs are considered exemplary for developing and expanding our knowledge about the policy area or viewing in a telescopic manner, long-range benefits to youth participants vis-a-vis program involvement, skill and ability in making real world choices and general appreciation of all factors involved.

Drawing upon this perspective, then, there are several knowledge or information gaps. Generally speaking, the following questions are raised: What are other characteristics, criteria or components that would render a program one which is so structured in reflecting real world choices, that program participants gain in this ability? What other pertinent data influence participants' success, i.e., the region (rural-urban; West Coast; East Coast), population, year, economic conditions, and sociological factors? How much should we attempt to gauge the influence of parental interest and involvement on decision-making? Do curriculum materials and equipment, teaching methods and techniques make significant differences in leading high-risk youth to success in making real world commitments and choices? Are there enough quality jobs and opportunities available for youth selection and exploration from concerned and knowledgeable employers?

These are but a few of the many inquiries involved in this area of research that almost takes on a gossamer quality, yet this is research we must pursue to bridge the extended knowledge gap.

Recommendation for Policy

The following recommendations are offered to extend and more adequately confirm our knowledge about how programs should be structured to aid participants in making real world choices.

Recommendations numbered one (1), two (2), and three (3), were indicated by the National Manpower Institute.[24]

(1) Youth need continuing opportunities to develop skills and abilities that enable them to learn responsible behavior by experiencing the consequences and costs of their choices.

(2) "The use of a three party agreement that spells out the expectations and responsibilities of each party; student, staff, employer -- procedures to assess and update student's interests and abilities."[25]

(3) "Parents and taxpayers should be involved in designing the program and the evaluation procedures so that they understand program goals, methods, and expected outcomes. Finally, the

programs can benefit by incorporating a community service dimension that enables young people to contribute directly to the welfare of the community as a whole."[26]

(4) Labor market practices must be seen from the perspective of the employers to insure the success of programs designed to meet the goals of the educational and employment worlds. These ideas are recommended rather succinctly by Paul E. Barton.[27] He also recommends a study of the legal ramifications involving hiring of youth.

(5) Schmais relates, "When the office of Educational Opportunity convened a conference on The Crisis in Human Services, training was identified as the most crucial and neglected variable in this crisis."[28] In general, then, it is recommended that training should be given in risk-taking, decision-making and responsibility-taking, so that participants can acquire and refine skills and knowledge, gaining insight and self-understanding.

(6) Techniques of role-playing and job simulation are especially important. Learning by doing are the key words. Schmais states, "...value and attitude change can occur more rapidly when it is a function of purposeful activity."[29]

Suggested Areas for Further Research

1. Longitudinal studies to provide data to make more rigorous assessments of the long-run impact of program involvement upon high-risk youth participants.

2. Studies typically labelled "Survey" to get first-hand information from the youthful population as to their perception of benefits and/or their "appreciation" level.

3. Studies which examine program staff-members and their perceptions, knowledge, skill, ability, commitment, and inclination vis-a-vis working with high-risk youth.

4. Replication of studies which included non-traditional techniques of education and preparation for work viewed as pertinent for use with unemployed disadvantaged youth.

5. Studies which have as their main objective to analyze and further delineate what it means to make a real-world choice.

6. Research projects which examine on a case study basis, the younger siblings of the older high-risk youth in order to gain insight into the socioeconomic factors which continue to produce the growing population labelled "High-Risk."

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CHAPTER SIX

Individualized Planning and Assessment Plans

The Constitution guarantees each individual a broad range of freedom in which to express his thoughts and choose a meaningful lifestyle. Thus, institutions of education have a significant role and a major responsibility in providing flexible programs that are varied to meet determined individual student needs and abilities. The needs of an individual at any specified point in time may be similar, but certainly not the same, as those of any other individual. Each person is unique. In order to maintain our democratic form of government with its strong support of individual freedom, we must not only accept individual differences in our society, but pursue courses of action that develop and enhance each individual's abilities, skills, knowledge and talents.[1]

Public education is a major contributor to the perpetuation of this democratic way of life, and along with parents, has been charged with a primary responsibility for transmitting values, attitudes, skills and knowledge from one generation to the next. As world technology, information and communication systems continue their expansion, it becomes even more imperative that each student gain relevant skills and knowledge as efficiently and effectively as possible.[2]

The individualization of instruction in public schools has emerged as a way of more effectively meeting the unique academic, social, emotional and physical needs of individual students. Although individualized instruction encompasses a variety of methods, materials and organizational patterns, the basic elements can be identified.[3] This chapter examines the basic elements of individualized instruction, the Individualized Education Plan, programs utilizing the I.E.P. and provides recommendations for utilizing the Individualized Education Plan with high risk youth.

Individualized Instruction

Duke points out that although the idea of individualization has been with us for some time, it was from the 1960s that attempts to individualize the educational experience for millions of students became most noticeable.[6] Today, educators are becoming increasingly aware of the rationale and necessity for individualized instruction, and seemingly, more and more schools are implementing individualized programs.[7]

An analysis of American Education by DeYoung and Wynn[4] indicates that there are five basic elements that all individualized instruction programs should contain:

1. Curriculum area to be studied
2. Objectives to be mastered in curriculum area
3. Methods and materials to be used to master objectives
4. Learning pace
5. Criteria by which progress will be evaluated.

The essential element in all individualized instructional programs is that each individual learns at this own pace. The student is the decision maker about how rapidly he learns. In fact, the degree to which the student is responsible for his learning may be used as a means of classifying individualized programs. At one end of the continuum the student exercises control over his rate of progress; however, the other elements are determined by the instructor. At the other end of the continuum the student decides (1) what subject he wishes to pursue, (2) what specific knowledge and/or skills he wishes to master, (3) what materials or strategies he wishes to use, and (4) what behavior would indicate he had accomplished his objective. Thus, the degree of flexibility in the individualized instructional program is characterized by the degree to which the student meets his needs through his own choices.[5]

Individualized Education Program Plan

The Individualized Education Program originated as a requirement of P.L. 94-142 which is a comprehensive revision of Part B of the Education of the Handicapped Act, 1975. P.L. 94-142 reflects a movement to develop programs designed to meet each handicapped child's unique educational needs in order to help each handicapped child become all he or she is capable of becoming, rather than placing the child on the basis of disability grouping. The law defines an individualized education program as a written statement that specifies instructional objectives and indicates what special education and/or related services will be provided to the child.[8]

The IEP plan must include:[9]

1. A written statement of the student's present levels of educational performance.
2. A statement of annual goals reflecting the student's present levels of educational performance and specifying the behavior to be achieved through the individualized education program.
3. A list of short-term objectives which serve as the steps in achieving each annual goal.
4. A statement of appropriate objective criteria, evaluation procedures and schedules for determining, on at least an annual basis, whether the instructional objectives are being achieved.
5. A statement of the extent to which the student will be able to participate in a regular education program.
6. A description of all special education and related services that will be provided to meet the student's needs, any special instructional media and materials to be provided and the type of physical education program in which the student will participate.
7. The projected date for beginning the program and the anticipated duration of these services.

Writing an IEP plan is a three-step process: (1) establishing where the student is (determining present levels of educational performance), (2) identifying how much and what one can reasonably expect him/her to learn by the end of a year (writing annual goals) and (3) determining the steps to be taken in achieving annual goals and the means to measure the student's progress (specifying short-term objectives and determining the means for evaluating progress).[10]

The IEP has its roots in the law; however, much effort has been made, by using similar strategies, to reach the heart of the problem regarding individualization which is identification, arrangement and design of curriculum content. In reviewing the literature, we are inundated with a flood of acronyms such as UNIPAC, LAP, EPP, TLU, and I:E.P. If one wades through the jargon, he discovers that most of these "new" approaches deal with curriculum content in similar ways. Their common goal is to sequentially arrange the curriculum in small segments which clearly relate to performance levels or objectives that meet students' needs. The instructional program should be built around the following concerns: (1) What are the learner's interests? (2) What is the readiness of the learner? (3) What is the learner's rate of learning? (4) What are the opportunities for the learner's success? (5) How will the learner know he has succeeded? These concerns have fostered a fairly standard format for instructional packages that encompass the following items: (1) Main idea or concept. (2) Purpose or rationale. (3) Learning objectives. (4) Pre-test. (5) Learning activities. (6) Self-evaluation or assessment. (7) Post-test.[11]

It should be kept in mind that the description of the student's present educational levels in appropriate curricular areas may include, but are not limited to, academic achievement; vocational skills; self-help skills; social adaptations; emotional maturity; motor skills; hearing functioning; visual functioning (orientation and mobility); and speech/language skills.[12]

Based on the evidence discussed above, it would be reasonable to ask would not every student benefit from an individualized education plan, particularly the high risk youth?

Programs Utilizing Individualized Educational Plan Approaches

Presented in this section is a sampling of individualized planning approaches to education and training utilized by various programs. The primary objective of the reviewer is to give the reader several examples of ways to individualize; however, the descriptions provided do not necessarily contain all the elements previously recommended in the section entitled "Individualized Instruction." Each approach can be adapted to incorporate the suggested components.

Systems Approach[13]

The systems approach is not a magical panacea that provides instant solutions to our educational problems. However, its application in planning can maximize the probability of designing the most effective and efficient teaching and learning activities. There are numerous instructional systems models available that can be useful in designing mediated individualized instruction; however, because of their complexity, some systems models appear to be more difficult to adapt than others. The systems model presented in Figure 1 is an adaptation of a systems approach originally presented by Lehman (1968).[14]

Benchmark Education Program[15]

Benchmark utilized a reduced class size model operating in a self-contained classroom with para-professional support. The student/teacher ratio was approximately 20-1. The instructional program was diagnostic-prescriptive; each student had an individual prescribed program. This was an experimental program and after one year, the results of the treatment indicated that the youngsters receiving the Benchmark program had a higher mean score on the California Achievement Test. The experiment was conducted in the Philadelphia Public School System.

Employability Development Plan[16]

1. The EDP is a systematic process of making a plan that describes an individual's employment history and goals and the services the Prime Sponsor can provide to help the individual achieve those goals.
2. The EDP is a planning document that provides a means of developing a strategy. It includes the participant's occupational goals, which are developed with a counselor. Using the document, the counselor continually monitors the progress of the plan.
3. The EDP, which is similar to a contract, identifies the steps in the process and eliminates misunderstandings about the obligations of the participant and of CETA. The plan is a strategy -- that is, a map for the participant to move among the employment and training activities, as well as a management tool for monitoring and evaluating the counseling process and for teaching the participant.

Career Development Plan

The Career Intern Program, operated by the Opportunities Industrialization Centers of America (OIC/A) includes a Career Development Plan (CDP) for each participant.

> Career Development Plans are written records of the interns' career plans which profile their aptitudes and include the strengths and weaknesses that have emerged from the testing. The CDP also records their hands-on experience and reactions; indicates the kinds of academic credit they had gained and

what's still needed to reach their career goals; and listed post-CIP options they might be interested in pursuing.17

The Career Development Plan provides for the individualization of the curriculum for each intern by stating the interests and abilities of the interns to be matched to the instructional program. It also serves as the mechanism around which teachers and counselors can meet to adopt the program so it will best address the needs of the interns. The coordination of the plan is the responsibility of the general counselor who monitors its implementation.

Each intern chooses two potential career interests and the CDP becomes a guidebook on how to attain the chosen goal. The plan includes objectives for academic achievement as well as other areas. Continuous monitoring is required both to determine if objectives are achieved and to review earlier decisions so that changes can be made if desired by the intern.

Formal assessment procedures are used periodically to track progress. The first assessment which takes place is diagnostic testing which occurs within the first two weeks of each intern's enrollment in CIP. Mid-term and final assessments are also given. Periodic disposition conferences are held to discuss progress and problems in each individual case and to devise strategies required to meet objectives. Grades are recorded at the end of each semester for academic courses. While instructors have primary responsibility for assigning grades, counselors do have some input, especially when there are mitigating circumstances.[18]

Georgia Public Schools Individualized Programs

Individually diagnosed and prescribed programs set objectives for each student and then allow the student to move through those objectives at his own pace. Periodic assessments are made to diagnose whether the objectives have been reached and what new methods might be used to reach those objectives. These individualized programs are one approach to establishing student responsibility for learning.[19]

Self directed programs are used in the Georgia Public Schools to allow students to choose from a variety of learning materials in order to achieve objectives set by the instructor. The student is allowed to proceed at his own pace along curriculum lines laid out by the instructor. Evaluation of learning is also determined by the instructor.[20]

Under the personalized program approach, the student has a choice of curriculum areas which match his own personal interests. Once an area of interest has been selected, learning objectives which have previously been set must be achieved by using the prescribed materials. As in all individualized programs, the student may move at his own pace. The instructor establishes evaluation criteria in this model.[21]

The most flexible of the individualized instructional programs used by the Georgia Public Schools is independent study. In this method the student establishes his own learning objectives and chooses the methods and materials to meet them. While working at his own pace, he may establish his own evaluation criteria and perform a self-evaluation. In some cases, the student is also free to choose his curriculum area.[22]

Open Entry/Open Exit

The Open Entry/Open Exit system is the vocational training program plan used in over 140 local Opportunities Industrialization Centers (OICs) throughout the United States.

> The Open Entry/Open Exit concept evolved from the need for immediate response to trainees' varied experiences, skill levels, and labor market demands. It is an approach to training which provides flexibility around the individual trainee's needs. Provisions are made for completion of training at some level of specialized readiness (determined by assessment) or attainment of a level reflecting the trainee's occupational objective.
>
> This method enables a person to enter and participate in a program designed to overcome individual deficiencies.
>
> Open entry open exit allows the trainee to enter at various times, progress at individual rate and exit at employability. Therefore, the curriculum should be trainee-centered. Intake should depend on occupational objective and OIC's capabilities.

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Employability plans should be developed for the trainee upon entry into the program. Each trainee's employability needs will be carefully identified, assessed, and acted upon. This becomes the trainee's individualized program.

Careful analysis of the occupation and method of implementation is mandatory if the program is to address the trainee's need.23

Hudson Valley OIC Skills Discovery Center

According to the OICs of America, Key News,[24] the Hudson Valley OIC has an effective client-centered employment and training program for the handicapped known as the Skills Discovery Center.

Included in the Center are Diagnostic Vocational Evaluation and Personal Adjustment Training, which will be discussed below.

Diagnostic Vocational Evaluation is a three to five week process which enrollees are engaged in as part of their first experiences at the Hudson Valley OIC. This effort attempts to discover enrollees' interests and determine their aptitudes. It includes trips to work sites, video taping of role plays, discussions and testing. The tests measure academic ability, vocational skills, physical dexterity, personality types, and life skills.

> At the end of the evaluation period the client, an evaluator, an OIC vocational rehabilitation counselor and a counselor from the New York State Office of Vocational Rehabilitation (OVR) together discuss the recommendations to be made. Outcomes can include immediate job placement, enrollment in regular OIC skill training, academic remediation, or other choices.25

Personal Adjustment Training (PAT) is specifically designed for the handicapped and includes Adult Basic Education, Clerical and Industrial. The Clerical and Industrial PAT offer the same Open Entry/Open Exit individualized learning approaches as other OIC programs; however, PAT clients must remain in the program for 13 weeks.

The Oakland Youth Work Experience Program

The U.S. Department of Labor Conference Report on Youth Unemployment: Its Measurement and Meaning[26] describes the Oakland Youth Work Experience Program based upon a model developed by the Office of Youth Development, HEW. It set as its goals:

1. To increase youth's access to socially acceptable and meaningful roles both at school and in relation to future work roles.
2. To reduce negative labeling of youth at home, school and work.
3. To reduce feelings of alienation and rejection and, as a consequence
4. To reduce involvement in delinquent behavior.27

The program provided work experience and basic educational skills. Each participant was assessed to determine mathematics, English and reading ability. An individualized educational plan was then developed for each participant. The plans included participation in accredited programs offered by a variety of local educational agencies. The plans were also designed to provide youth with an opportunity to pursue educational objectives related to their career interests and possibilities.

Recommendations for Policy

A comprehensive assessment of the evidence presented in this policy area suggests the inclusion of the following elements in an individualized education plan to serve high-risk youth:

1. Statement of the problem - A clear statement of the applicant's problem including remarks concerning the circumstances which caused the need for education, training, or supported services offered by the program;
2. An outline of the enrollee's qualifications and his occupational, educational and personal needs;
3. A clear statement of the enrollee's vocational, educational, and training objectives;
4. Statement of the plan - A statement of the goals set for the enrollee and the steps that will be taken to attain the objectives. The statement should include the steps that will be taken to provide the required services, education, training and employment;
5. Assessment Plan - A statement of the program's or agency's strategy for measuring the extent to which the objectives have been achieved;
6. Changes - If changes become necessary, the changes and the reasons for making them should be recorded as part of the plan.

In light of the above findings, the following recommendations are suggested for programs and agencies serving high-risk youth:

1. All staff members should be knowledgeable of the individualized education plan process. (Perhaps, in-service training in this area should be required.)
2. Each participant/trainee receiving services should have an I.E.P.
3. The formulation of the I.E.P. should include all persons responsible for rendering service as well as the participant/trainee himself.
4. I.E.P.'s should be monitored carefully for the purpose of assessing services and updating plans.

5. Each I.E.P. should be clearly unique, reflecting the goals, objectives and particular needs of the individual.
6. In addition to a file copy, each participant/trainee should have a copy of his I.E.P.
7. The I.E.P. should serve as a contract between the agency and the participant/trainee.
8. Where appropriate, parents should be involved in the development of the I.E.P. so that they understand the goals, methods and expected outcomes of the program.

Suggested Areas for Further Research

1. Comparative studies which assess the impact of programs utilizing the I.E.P. in a vocational model in contrast with more traditional programs.
2. Quality assessment designed to elicit the attitudes, perceptions and degree of satisfaction of youths participating in programs incorporating the I.E.P. model.
3. Quality assessment designed to elicit the attitudes and perceptions of staff participating in programs incorporating the I.E.P. model.
4. Research conducted to gather concrete examples of actual I.E.P. vocational models. (Would be extremely valuable with in-service training.)

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CHAPTER SEVEN

Motivation, Job Seeking and Work Relevant Attitudes

The review of this particular portion of the literature concerns several concepts: attitudes, job-seeking skills, motivation, and work-relevant characteristics. Of these, the concept attitude is the most troublesome to define.

Early writings on the concept attitude by Allport[1] list three approaches: (1) the experimental psychology of the late nineteenth century which used the laboratory method to investigate reaction time, perception, memory, judgment, thought, and volition and employed such terms as muscular set, task-attitude, mental and motor attitudes, and determining tendencies to conceptual development; (2) psychoanalysis, which emphasized the dynamic and unconscious bases of attitude; and (3) sociology, where psychological representation of cultural and societal influence developed as an attitude in the understanding of personality and behavior became widely recognized in the discipline of social psychology. It was next incumbent upon social psychology practitioners to develop a working definition of the social concept of attitude. Shaw and Wright[2] defined the concept attitude as a relatively enduring system of affective evaluative reactions based upon and reflecting beliefs which have been learning about the characteristics of a social object or class. Rokeach[3] describes attitudes as relatively enduring beliefs around an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner. Asch[3] writes that "attitudes are particularly enduring sets formed by past experiences." Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum[4] were convinced that there is general agreement that attitudes are both learned and implicit. They further state that attitudes are inferred states and are acquired in much the same manner as other learned activity is acquired.

Not all social psychologists agree that "attitude" is a legitimate concept. Doob[5] and Blumer[6] assert that attitude is not a legitimate concept. They suggest that the concept be discarded because it lacks empirical reference and is ineffective as a unit of analysis in either personality organization or the study of social organization. Rokeach,[7] however, sums up the concept of attitude by stating that attitudes are prejudgments that may be selective and biased. They may at any given point cause individuals to respond to social objects in some preferential manner. If the formation of attitudes is important in the determination of predisposition toward or away from social objects, then those attitudes expressed by individuals belonging to special sub-groups should have particular significance for policy makers and programs that provide employment and training services. Mangum and Walsh[8] conclude that "employability is first and foremost a function of attitudes, habits, deportment, and general intellectual manipulative skills, much more than specific occupational skills."

Research efforts have been designed to measure the affective latitudinal changes of participants in programs targeted to the high-risk youth population. Program evaluations have yielded information from which program impact has been studied. New data-collection instruments, methods and procedures have emerged. These tools have been employed to provide full analysis and synthesis of the relationship between program features and the participant outcomes of specialized groups. According to Backer (1973),[9] attempts have been made to "overcome some of the generally acknowledged shortcomings of standard paper-and-pencil tests for assessing individuals whose reading skills, test wiseness, and mainstream cultural experiences are limited."

The first section of this chapter will list several tests designed to measure the interests, attitudes and values of "disadvantaged" respondents. Although the description "disadvantaged" identifies only a segment of the high-risk youth population, similarities in the groups exist. No examples of quantitative instruments designed specifically for the high-risk youth population were found in the literature. Perspectives related to the features of both qualitative and quantitative analyses, will be provided next, to establish a philosophical base from which the reader may view selected program evaluations. Opinions of researchers in the areas of attitude assessment and career employment programs will be included in the recommendations for policy and suggested areas for future study.

Several tests have been developed to measure interests, attitudes and values. Tests that measure affective development and career knowledge include but are not limited to the following:[10]

The Employment Services NATB
Biographical Information Blank (BIB)
Educational Testing Service Assessment Battery
Rotter Internality-Externality Scale
Social Vocabulary Index
Revised Interaction Scale
Career Development Inventory (Super)
Self-Esteem Inventory (Coopersmith)
Standard Progressive Matrices (Raven)
Work-Relevant Attitudes Inventory (WRAI)
Career Maturity Inventory (CTB/McGraw-Hill)
Kuder General Interest Surveys; Occupational Interest Survey; Personal Preference Record (SRA)
Pictorial Study of Values-Psychometric Affiliates
Strong-Cambell Interest Inventory - Stanford U.
Survey of School Attitudes - Psy. Corp.
Work Values Inventory - Houghton Mifflin

Special assessment techniques for seriously disadvantaged clients include the following:[11]

Bolt
Bib
Colorado Battery
GATB/NATB Screening Device
Indik Work Motivation Scales
Jorgenson et. al. Scales
Mandell et. al. Forms
NATB
SATBs
SICL
TBS Scale
Tseng Rating Scales
Walther Inventory
Wolf Scales
COATS
Hester Evaluation System
JEVS
Job Trials
McCarran - Dial Work Evaluation System
Micro - TOWER
SAVE
Singer Vocational Evaluation System (VES)
TAP System
TOWER

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Valpar
VIEWS
VITAS
Work Behavior Samples
Psychological Corp. Pretesting Orientation
USES Pretesting Orientation[12]

Perspectives related to the utility of quantitative analysis will be presented here. Backer, citing some of the shortcomings of traditional paper-and-pencil tests, states the following:

> - Most traditional paper-and-pencil tests are similar to classroom examinations with which many disadvantaged persons have a history of failure, and which therefore may make them feel anxious and uncomfortable.
>
> - Many of these tests have written directions at a rather high reading level which must be understood by the testee if measurements are to be valid.
>
> - Individual test items also may be at a relatively high reading level and may reflect cultural content of which the disadvantaged have little knowledge.
>
> - Item content of tests designed for children but administered to disadvantaged adults may be simple enough in reading level but uninteresting or insulting. This can seriously damage motivation to perform.
>
> - Many disadvantaged persons have inadequate experience with tests of any kind, and so do not have the "test wiseness" important to yielding test results that fairly estimate characteristics/capabilities.
>
> - Many tests do not seem to bear any significant relationship to the individual characteristics pertinent to job success for most of the jobs the disadvantaged will be seeking.
>
> - Tests designed to measure psychopathology (e.g., MMPI; Rorschach or other projective tests) are unlikely to produce results that can be used in an employment and training setting, even if clients can take the tests validly.[13]

Other problems related to the use of quantitative analysis, in the measurement of affective change, were cited by Tallmadge (1979).[14] In an evaluation report on an alternative career education program, the Career Intern Program, Tallmadge reported:

> There was no consistent pattern of gains on the Career Development Inventory Information scale or on any of the affective findings came as somewhat of a surprise since attitude change is central to the CIP, and since on-site observations and ethnographic analyses suggested that such change had occurred (Fetterman, 1979). It appears more likely that the instruments were insensitive to changes that did occur than that there were no changes. This inference led the authors to recommend that more appropriate instruments be sought out or developed for future CIP evaluations.

In addition, Tallmadge discussed factors related to the use of control group experimental designs which are often associated with quantitative analysis.

> Lack of control over the control group causes educational research in field settings to differ from laboratory experiments in very important ways. Rather than providing a no-treatment expectation, members of the control group may find their way into a typical educational setting that can seriously bias findings of treatment-control comparisons. If, for example, applicants to the CIP who were randomly assigned to the control group decide to abandon education pursuits completely, their post-test performance would tend to make the program appear more effective than it really was. Conversely, if the control students gained admission to another particularly effective program, they would tend to make the CIP appear ineffective. Such biases are eliminated through the use of norm-referenced comparisons.[15]

Travers (1978)[16] offers a more optimistic picture of standardized instruments. He states that "in recent years a very large number of studies have used well-known instruments such as the Strong Vocational Interest inventory, the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, the Edward's Personality Reference Schedule for measuring needs, a Rokeach's device for the assessment of values."[17] He adds that many other instruments, all of which have had long histories of producing interesting findings, could also be included. Travers suggests the utility of instruments that have survived the years of trial and use and have proven their reliability. In addition, he states that data previously collected indicates the kinds of situations in which an instrument's use is recommended and the general theory of behavior that the instrument supports. He concludes by offering the use of published reviews of instruments that are noted for their highly critical analyses of published tests. He stated that the writers of instrument review journals "have tended to be overcautious rather than overenthusiastic, which is an error in the right direction."[18]

As early as 1973, federal sponsors of educational research were seeking alternative methods to provide "a qualitative complement to the quantitative product of traditional survey methodology."[19] Fetterman and Simon (1980)[20] state that the traditional approach, based largely as an experimental research paradigm, could indicate general trends, patterns or correlation; however, naturalistic field methods might be able to achieve what survey methods could not - a detailing of what happens in the setting to produce the observed results. According to Fitzsimmon (1977),[21] qualitative or ethnographic methods are not seen as a replacement for traditional methods, but as "adding a new dimension."

Several issues raised by the experience of anthropologists and qualitative researchers, in federally sponsored research, have centered around "the role of ethnography in interdisciplinary research, communication with non-anthropologists about proof and generalizations, and the novel exigencies of field methods and the usefulness of the products of field research."[22]

Fetterman and Simon postulate that the greatest strengths of any study are its validity and its replicability." One of anthropology's greatest strengths is in its validity; however, one of its greatest weaknesses is its lack of replicability."[23] Pelto (1970)[24] explains:

> A principal weakness in much anthropological work is that investigation is not recycled. Most frequently the social scientist who has finished a neat piece of work publishes his conclusions and then moves on to another somewhat related area of research - to expand on the supposedly successful model of explanation, rather than submitting it to critical retesting. It is not difficult to see that there are important features in the general culture of the social sciences that encourage poor methodology. Pressures to publish and to produce new and novel conceptualizations - encourage premature closure of investigation. And our social-science culture provides too few rewards for patient hesitation, recycling, and replication of research instead of having applause for a replication of observations, the anthropologist more often hears a scornful "That's already been done by _______________, ten years ago."

A description of ethnographic data-collection instruments, methods and procedures used to qualitatively analyze "the functional inter-relationships among program components and student outcomes" (including affective attitudinal) is provided by Fetterman (1979).[25]

> (The study) has employed primarily ethnographic data-collection instruments, methods, procedures, and perspectives. (The study) also relied heavily on information gathered through nomothetic methods and perspectives. Traditional techniques such as participant-observation, non-participant observation, use of key informants, triangulation, structured, semi-structured, and informal interviews, and so on were used to elicit data from the emic or "insider's" perspective. The study attempted to use a non-judgmental, holistic, contextual perspective to properly inform the use of these methods. A tape recorder and camera proved invaluable in collecting and documenting the data elicited from the sites.

Features of both quantitative and qualitative analyses have been provided to establish a basis from which the reader may view selected program evaluations. Programs selected for inclusion here possess the following characteristics:

- the client groups generally fit within the high-risk youth population descriptors
- affective/attitudinal student outcomes are stated as program goals or objectives
- program components/features are designed to produce affective outcomes
- program outcomes have been analyzed in a formal evaluation process

Two independent studies, a longitudinal study of out-of-school Neighborhood Youth Corps enrollees in four (4) cities involving 502 subjects and a longitudinal study of students in an experimental education program in five manpower programs involving 526 subjects have been made. According to Walther (1975),[26] a purpose of these studies was to ascertain the effectiveness of the Work-Relevant Attitude Inventory in predicting criteria of program effectiveness.

Results indicated that the WRAI was able to differentiate between subjects making a "good" and a "poor" adjustment to work and that the change in WRAI scores of NYC program participants were in a positive direction for subjects making a "good" adjustment to work, and a negative for subjects making a "poor" adjustment. Test-retest correlations with two administrations over a year apart were in the 60's for total WRAI scores. Walther[27] further states:

> The research reported here is the final phase of a long term effort to develop a Work-Relevant Attitudes Inventory (WRAI) for use in diagnosing the needs of individuals and evaluating the effectiveness of manpower programs. In early studies, items were identified which differentiated between criterion groups. From the initial 72 items, 26 were selected for use in the current studies, and arranged into three scales, Optimism, Self-confidence, and Unsocialized Attitudes.28
>
> The NYC study demonstrated that there was a snigificant association between WRAI scores and employment outcomes and that on the basis of WRAI scores, relatively few mistakes would be made in predicting a subject would fall into the high group when he belonged in the low or vice versa.
>
> It was also found that the WRAI scores of subjects making a "good" employment adjustment changed in a positive direction while they were in the program; while the scores of subjects making a "poor" adjustment tended to change in a negative direction.29

Mathematica Policy Research, et al (1977)[30] performed an analysis of nine-month interviews of Supported Work. The National Demonstration of Supported Work was established to test the effects of the supported work experience on those with long histories of unemployment and resistance to traditional manpower efforts.[31] The program's goals related to the improvement of individual employment potentials.

The development of better work habits, attitudes, self-confidence and self-esteem appeared to rank high among the participants interviewd (see following chart).[32]

> Question: As a result of working at Supported Work, what would you say is the most important thing that happened to you?

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Response	Number Responding	Percentage of All Experimentals
Learned job skills, trade	66	18.6
Better work habits and attitudes	47	13.2
Steady job, income	51	14.4
Self-confidence, self-esteem	40	11.3
Stayed out of trouble, off drugs	30	8.5
Nothing	81	22.8
Other	93	a/

A pilot study in observational measurement of behavioral factors associated with increased employability of Out-of-School Neighborhood Youth Corps enrollees was performed by Sykes (1969).[33] The study of three (3) NYC Programs included observations of ninety-five (95) youth at actual job sites and was primarily concerned with whether out-of-school NYC enrollees became more employable as a result of their work experience.[34]

Findings of the pilot study included but are not limited to the following:

1. As a group, enrollees improved in their performance of necessary work habits very little as a result of work experience in NYC (habits included arriving on time, and regularly following orders, dressing appropriately, notification in case of absence, etc).

2. Work group and supervisory factors which are associated with an enrollee remaining a long time in NYC and those which are associated with improvement of his work habits are not only different, but may be antithetical."35 Long tenure in NYC and improvement in work habits tend to be negatively correlated.

3. The enrollee's work habits and skills cannot be considered in isolation as an individual psychological problem of adjustment or maladjustment or of simple learning. The problem is not so much one of learning as of performance. (ex. enrollees know they should be on time, but are they on time). Performance is related to social context in which it occurs, and to communication.

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4. Programs must assume role as agent of structural change and of transition beweeen structures. Programs must change role expectations and performance of enrollees.

5. The kinds of interaction which are normally and legitimately exercised by role within the work group are likely to be associated with greatest improvement on part of enrollee. Therefore, supervisors should be supervisors, not primarily father-substitutes, teachers or friends.

6. Enrollees improve most who are in groups which contain both regular adult non-supervisory employees and other enrollees. Work groups should be "business-like" with work-related communication occurring.

7. Role models are important, especially adult non-supervisory co-workers who are performing tasks similar to the enrollees. Peers needed for friendship.

8. The structure of the work group and its activities are important in the transition from adolescent to adult perception and performance of work roles. It is likely that no types of formalized instruction can be a substitute for work experience.36

Rist (1979)[37] provides a study of Exemplary In-School Demonstration Projects to be reviewed here. Rist found, after interviewing 451 youth, that three factors contributed to youths' perceptions of the quality of their experiences in a program:

1. Adequate adult supervision of activities.
2. Close fit between education activities and work activities.
3. Work activities matched with career interests.38

Positive effects for the majority of youth enrolled included greater self-confidence, more positive attitude toward education, plans for more education or training and improved planning for future careers.[39] Rist also identified four program models - Alternative School, Employment Training, In-School Career Awareness and Work Experience. The range of treatments found included:

Job-seeking skills training
Personal awareness counseling sessions
Career information

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Training in group dynamics
On-the-job work experience
Personal counseling[40]

Findings indicated that staff roles, student choice and student activities in the program are the three critical dimensions to describe quality of program from the student's point of view. The role of teacher/counselor was described as vital to the process. Another finding related to student development in the area of coping skills - increased self-confidence, social interaction skills, planning skills. Development was obtained in the aforementioned areas in the Alternative School, Employment Training and Work Experience models. Development did not occur in the In-School Career Awareness Projects.[41]

Two studies which sought to provide an assessment of the Job Corps performance and impacts were conducted by Abt Associates and Kerachsky et al. The study conducted by Abt Associates (1979)[42] was an assessment of behavioral, attitudinal and health changes of corps members. A survey made of 489 applicants and enrollees revealed that three months or more in Job Corps led to improvement in:

Job Seeking Skills
Job Satisfaction
Attitude Toward Authority
Self-Esteem
Criminal Justice System Involvement
Nutrition Behavior
Family Relations
Leisure Time[43]

Additional findings stated that being in the labor market led to more improvement in respondent's knowledge of work; attitudes toward work did not change significantly from pre-test to post-test leading to the conclusion that attitudes about the value of work are not easily improved; remaining in Job Crops led to a relatively more optimistic perception of the future; and employment status correlated with length of time in program and sex (more positive impact for women). Youth who dropped out of Job Corps had declining scores in all areas.[44]

The Kerachsky et al[45] study of the Job Corps stated that because Job Corps youth are extremely disadvantaged by almost every measure, the importance of counseling and other ancillary services at the Centers cannot be understated. It was felt that counseling services and residential advisors are needed to help Corpmembers to plan their educational and vocational curricula, to motivate Corpmembers and to create a supportive environment. The residential living component of the program was seen to provide supportive environment to disadvantaged youth. Corpmembers are motivated to adopt constructive attitudes and lifestyles and to be prepared to function effectively in the outside world. Relationships among racial and ethnic groups, adaption to unfamiliar group living situations, adult-youth cooperation and roles in peer groups influenced conduct and attitudes.[46]

Among the other important findings of the Study of the Career Intern Program, Fetterman (1979),[47] the evidence showed direct relationships among the CIP philosophy, CIP practices and student outcomes. The ideological components of the CIP are detailed in Figure 1.[48] The philosophy of the parent organization is based in part, according to Anderson (1976),[49] on the theory that "a positive self-concept is a sine qua non for successful training, development and later work performance," This philosophy translated into the ideological orientation of the CIP - the philosophy translated into program practices and the practices produce specific effective outcomes in students. In Figure 2,[50] examples of effective student outcomes are provided.

Two studies of Experimental and Demonstration Programs will complete the survey of programs. Seiler (1969),[51] in a study of E&D Projects for Youth under MDTA found that the programs primarily served "disadvantaged" youth - i.e., out of work, undereducated, lacking literacy and job skills, feeling alienated toward society, having criminal records, etc. In brief, he found pre-vocational training for work-adjustment skills generally directed at developing positive interest in, attitudes toward and motivation for work. Most often, such training was provided through counseling techniques including group, peer group and role play and work-experience formats such as work crews, sheltered workshops and vestibule training.[52]

IDEOLOGICAL COMPONENTS OF THE CIP

Extension of OIC/A Philosophy and Ideological Orientation	Examples of how philosophy translates into program practices
CIP PHILOSOPHY	**CIP PRACTICE** (Examples)
Caring about interns	Individualized instruction Extensive counseling Commenting on new shoes High expectations
Providing a supportive context for interns	Listen to what interns say Provide almost as many counselors as instructors Disposition conferences Recruit qualified staff
Providing a realistic perspective	CDP Intern formalized assessment Maintenance System Fused curriculum Hands-on Responsible for one's own actions
Dealing with the whole intern	Disposition conference Academic and personal life Daily interaction Attention to apparel, language, walk and hygiene Home visits, phone calls
Maintaining high expectations of interns--personally and academically	Instructors demand completed assignments (on time) Counselor insists stick with CDP (unless inappropriate) Politeness and courtesy emphasized Group counseling assemblies Maintenance system, field trips
Treating interns as (young) adults	Responsibility for own actions emphasized, e.g., attendance Major role in planning future Respect intern experience and social responsibilities Instructor-intern relationship used as model for future employment roles CDP foster responsibility Maintenance system reinforce behavior patterns

Figure 1.

CIP PHILOSOPHY	CIP PRACTICE (Examples)
Treat interns as individuals	Intracultural diversity emphasized Individual personalities, leaders recognized and respected Recognize some do not want "wrong crowd" (avoiding negative peer pressure) Recognition of racial and academic discrimination of past (usually thought of as a homogeneous group) Individualized instruction Personal counseling Career developer secures Hands-on regarding intern interest Staff displays individual personal concern

Figure 1. (continued)

Adaptive Relationships Intrinsic to Program Operation

- Dedication to the whole-person concept in intensive counseling (including getting involved with intern's personal life when it affects his/her participation in the program) contributes to better attendance, enhancement of coping strategies (e.g., better control of temper), intern perception of the program as "a lot better" than their former school, and better intern understanding of their problems and the steps necessary to remedy them.

- Enforcement of maintenance system, e.g., school rules and regulations regarding promptness, appropriate apparel, etc., contributes to interns internalizing "world-of-work" norms and provides them with desired attention.

- Maintaining high expectations of interns--personally and academically--contributes to an improved attendance pattern, higher grades, and increased self-esteem for many interns.

- The fact that all staff members including the janitor understand the philosophy and function of the program and serve as role models, contributes to increased intern motivation to attend regularly and pursue studies.

- The use of contracts and various teaching devices contributes to a greater understanding and sense of responsibility on the part of the intern.

- Providing a supportive context for interns contributes directly to increased attendance, higher grades, selection of a career, and graduation according to many interns and staff members.

- The small size of the program produces a community-like atmosphere that "forces" many interns to exercise common courtesy not required at their former high school.

Figure 2.

Gordon (1969)[53] provides another study of fifty-five (55) Experimental and Demonstration Programs for our review. These programs, Gordon states, operate within a psychological frame of reference in which efforts are focused on producing change in youth through direct intervention in their behavior and experiences. The objective is to change the youth rather than changing the economic or social structure.[54] According to Gordon, the E&D projects demonstrated that counseling should be included in a comprehensive program. Counseling, however, must supplement training and placement, not supplant them, he cautions. He found that the provision of supportive services such as health care, cultural enrichment and transportation by the program was not empirically demonstrated to have enhanced the employability of clients. He adds, however, that these services are valid as social goods and therefore should be maintained.

The review of the literature on the impact, assessment and facilitation of affective growth in the high-risk youth population revealed several interesting findings and spot-lighted gaps in the literature. Most of the measurement instruments and methodologies reviewed are of relatively recent origin and have not been designed to measure attitudinal changes in the high-risk youth population.

Blackwell (1979)[55] in describing the orientation of the disadvantaged youth states:

> Life in a disadvantaged environment was not the most conducive setting for producing learning. Once the child was convinced that school was irrelevant to his immediate needs and future goals, educating him became almost impossible. New approaches to teaching the inner-city child had to be developed. These strategies must be realistic and based on the life conditions faced by students whose values and attitudes were formulated primarily from their perceptions of the conflicts, tension and frustrations of day-to-day life in the inner city.

Clark (1979)[56] concurs with Blackwell by adding:

> Normal quest for positive self-esteem and a socially acceptable self-perception is blocked and frustrated early in the lives of these rejected young people. All too soon they learn that the society as a whole--the schools, other social and governmental

> institutions and indeed, even the churches--does not expect them to achieve. They learn from their experiences that these institutions, reflecting as they do negative public expectations, do not respect them as human beings. Their struggle for positive self-perceptions now comes in conflict with the realities of inferior education, poor housing, inadequate sanitation and a pervasive human and community degradation. The conflict is deep and inescapable. It is sometimes conscious; but, for the most part, it remains unconscious.

In recognition of the difficulties involved in development and utilization of instruments and methodologies designed to measure impact on the attitudes of such a diverse, complex population, attempts to develop sensitive approaches have been documented. A limitation on the scope of this review is attributable to relatively recent interest in this sub-group of the youth population. Among the more significant limitations are the lack of coordination, integration and replication of research efforts; the previously described limitations of instruments including the inflexibility of many standardized assessment techniques; and a lack of literature on formative evaluations which might have supplied additional information on the relationship between program practices and student/client effective outcomes.

Recommendations for Policy

The following recommendations are forwarded to increase our knowledge of issues related to the attitudes of high-risk youth affecting learning and ultimately employment.

1. Increased coordination and integration of research projects might produce a larger body of comparable information from which to judge the success of both program outcomes and evaluation designs.

2. Replication of evaluation designs that have been proven to capture, in a more sensitive way, the specialized variables of the high-risk youth population.

3. Program designs that prove exemplary should be replicated but under conditions that reflect an increased awareness of the impact of levels of funding, time and timing, and evaluation design constraints.

4. Program designers/implementors/disseminators should be involved in the development of evaluation designs. Students/clients, parents and other community sources should be utilized in the process. If warranted, training of these groups should occur to insure more knowledgeable input.

5. Ethnographic evaluation methodologies should be incorporated in quantitative evaluation designs or used independently in the assessment of programs designed for this specialized group. The detailing of what occurs in a particular setting to produce the observed results is vital in the understanding of what specific program treatments actually produce in clients.

6. Conferences of researchers and program operators and disseminators could be a part of larger information gathering and information dissemination efforts, to increase general knowledge on the high-risk youth population.

7. Program designs that provide comprehensive supportive services including intensive, on-going counseling and a supportive program atmosphere, appear to be successful with the high-risk youth population.

Suggested Areas for Further Study

Although much research has been done, greater investigation of the attitudes of the high-risk youth population is recommended to respond to the following questions:

> What causal relations exist between program components and student outcomes?
>
> Do many elements of the treatment interact to produce sets of conditions under which certain changes are more likely to occur?
>
> Can standardized tests measure with validity and reliability the attitudinal changes of high-risk youth?
>
> If validity studies using the high-risk population and "appropriate" criteria are conducted with negative or modest results, should the abandonment of assessment legitimately follow?
>
> How extensively should ethnography be used as a way of providing a complement to quantitative analyses?
>
> In what ways can assessments of effective client outcomes be utilized by program practitioners?

The ensuing suggested areas for further study may, over time and careful analysis, provide information from which policy-makers and practitioners may be better able to provide the most effective services to the high-risk youth population.

(1) Formative and summative evaluations of youth programs to assess adaptations in treatments over time and the effect these changes made in the effective development of program participants.

(2) Longitudinal studies of quantitative and qualitative evaluations to ascertain changes over time.

(3) Comparative studies of programs targeted to specific sub-groups within the high-risk youth population to ascertain how program treatments should differ according to the sub-group.

(4) Replication of successful studies, particularly ethnographic, to demonstrate validity.

According to Clark (1979)[57] a serious youth development, youth training program "must understand the extent to which past rejection and dehumanization have damaged the human beings who are to be helped." He adds that "these harsh facts cannot be masked by euphenisms and double-talk. Nor can the victims be blamed for the negative symptoms of their victimization."

As stated early in the review, there are no simple or clearcut answers to the problems of the high-risk youth population. The continued search for answers is a step in the right direction.

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10. The list of effective and career development instruments provided here is not meant to be exhaustive, nor is it meant to identify instruments designed for the high-risk youth population. Some instruments may be more sensitive to recording affective changes in the high-risk youth population than others.

11. Not all of the instruments listed here measure effective growth or career knowledge. They have been included however, to show the variety of instruments developed for the seriously disadvantaged.

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47. Fetterman and Simon, op. cit., p. 32.

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Note: Chapter and Policy Area Numbers are synonomous

POLICY AREA #1

Adams, Arvil V. and Garth L. Mangum, The Lingering Crisis of Youth Unemployment. Michigan: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, 1978, 152 pgs.

This study is a reassessment of the youth unemployment problem. It is based on an analysis of recent trends in youth unemployment from published sources and on an additional analysis of a national sample of young men and women 16-19 years of age who were followed longitudinally over a seven-year period in the late 1960's and early 1970's.

Among the most significant findings are: (1) joblessness among out-of-school teenage youth carries with it a "hangover" effect, (2) education and training have significant positive effect upon the employment and earnings of youth by race and sex, and (3) there is a need for better counseling and job orientation in career education.

Altschuld, James W. and Terese Terry, Youth Training Programs in Ohio's Community Action Agencies. Ohio: The Center for Vocational Education. Ohio State University, 1977, 43 pgs.

This is a case study of six programs that provide either formal or informal training for youth from 14-21 years of age. Generally, these programs encompass facets of education/work experience, on-the-job training, counseling, vocational training and the upgrading of basic skills. The intent of the study was to describe the state of the art in youth oriented training programs based upon inputs from six agencies.

Some of the recommendations from the study were: (1) a need for varied job sites with better training possibilities and long-term job openings, (2) a need to improve participant's motivation, and (3) a strengthening of the counseling functions is necessary.

Barton, Paul E. and Bryna Shore Fraser. Between Two Worlds: Youth Transition from School to Work. Vol. 1, 2, 3, and an Executive Summary. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Office of Research and Development, 1978, 582 pgs.

In its entirety, the report seeks to synthesize existing knowledge and develop a research and experimentation strategy for youth transition from school to work. The Executive Summary provides a strategy for research and experimentation, drawing on the three volumes in the series. Volume 1 deals with the problems, conditions and issues relating to the transition from school to work. Volume 2 deals with program efforts, including the results of evaluations of existing programs, an evaluation agenda, and new programmatic experiments. Volume 3 deals with survey research and measurement.

Center of Education and Work, National Manpower Institute. A Charter for Improved Rural Youth Transition. Washington, D.C.: 1978, 24 pgs.

This charter was developed to direct attention to and shed light on the transition from education to work for rural youth. It examines the special problems encountered by rural youth as they negotiate the passage from education to employment and the particular difficulties faced by rural communities as they endeavor to improve the prospects for youth transition.

The charter itself is the product of the National Manpower Institute's involvement with eight rural work-education councils participating in the U.S. Department of Labor funded Work-Education Consortium. Each of the communities represented by the councils have developed a collaborative mechanism to address the school-to-work transition issue, using different sources of community council leadership and different approaches.

Federal Interagency Committee on Education, Sub-Committee on Education and Work. Education Service and Work: The Multi-Funded Approach. Washington, D.C.: 1976, 99 pgs.

The programs summarized in this project represent a wide variety of funding combinations. Their target populations range from Ph.D. candidates with technological backgrounds to handicapped and disadvantaged high school dropouts. The use to which funds are put include counseling, occupational education, stipends, child care, supportive services, intern positions, ethnic heritage studies, and a host of other services. The programs are sponsored by high schools, community colleges, four-year colleges and universities, state and local government, and non-profit organizations. The projects ranged from comprehensive programs involving many federal and non-federal funding sources to relatively small projects which draw resources from only two or three agencies or organizations.

Ferman, Louis A. "Job Placement Creation and Development," Breakthrough for Disadvantaged Youth, ed., William Mirengoff, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, 1969, pp. 181-215.

This report reviews and assesses the impact of selected strategies in job placement, job creation, and job development in the experimental and demonstration programs for disadvantaged youth organized under the Manpower Development and Training Act.

Conclusions from the investigation indicated:

(1) Supportive services are needed for both employee and employer in facilitating job adjustment;

(2) Total community resources must be mobilized and coordinated to produce the employable individual and jobs;

(3) Employability programs must have built into them guarantees of employment to insure the motivation needed to make training a success.

From School to Work: Improving the Transition. A Collection of Policy Papers Prepared for the National Commission for Manpower Policy. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978.

This volume is a direct outgrowth of the early planning of the Youth Task Force. It is an attempt to strengthen the knowledge base on youth school-to-work transition through the use of selected specialists who were asked to prepare a working paper on dimensions of the problem that fell within his or her expertise. Eleven papers in all were produced for this work. The topic areas were:

(1) Youth Transition to Work. The problem and Federal Policy Setting

(2) The Youth Labor Market

(3) Corporate Hiring Practices

(4) Labor Market Experience of Non-College Youth: A Longitudinal Analysis

(5) The Competencies of Youth

(6) Employment and Training Programs for Youth

(7) Community Efforts to Link Education and Work

(8) Informational and Counselor Needs in the Transition Process

(9) Apprenticeship: A Potential Weapon Against Minority Youth Unemployment

(10) Problems of Rural Youth

(11) Foreign and American Experience With the Youth Transition

Mangum, Garth and John Walsh, Employment and Training Programs for Youth: What Works Best for Whom? Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, 1978, 207 pgs.

The purposes of this project are to assess (1) what is known about the relative effectiveness of various employment and training services for youth, (2) the relative effectiveness of the various techniques which have been used in providing employment and training services to youth, (3) administrative practices which have either enhanced or vitiated employment and training services for youth, and (4) which services have proven most and least effective for specific target groups. The material is organized into ten chapters: (1) Criteria for Program Evaluation, (2) Youth Unemployment in Perspective,

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(3) Outreach and Assessment, (4) Subsidized Employment, (5) Institutional Training, (6) On-the-Job Training, (7) Counseling and Supportive Services, (8) Placement Services, (9) The "For Whom" Factor, and (10) Policy Considerations.

National Council on Employment Policy, The Local Focus on Youth, A Review of Prime Sponsor Experience in Implementing the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act. Washington, D.C.: 1979, 391 pgs.

This is an evaluation report by the National Council on Employment Policy on how CETA sponsors are conducting two programs under the new Youth Act, specifically the Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Projects (YCCIP) and the Youth Employment and Training Program (YETP).

The report is based on studies by 10 local analysts of 35 CETA sponsors' operation of these programs from late spring to late fall 1978, the latter part of the first fiscal year in which these programs were initiated.

National Manpower Institute, Job Placement Services for Youth. Washington, D.C.: March 1978, 44 pgs.

This report discusses the forms of placement service considered best for facilitating the school-to-work transition for youth. Among the various specialized arrangements discussed are (1) school-based placement programs, (2) local office operations of the Public Employment Service/Job Service, (3) cooperative school-ED/Job Service Programs, (4) placement programs operated by CETA prime sponsors, (5) services provided by community-based organizations, and by commercially-oriented enterprises such as private fee-charging employment agencies and temporary help employment contractors.

Rist, Ray C. et al. Education, Employment and Training: The Views of Youth, Interim Report #2. New York: Youthwork National Policy Study, Cornell University, 1979, 181 pgs.

This report provides an assessment of the views of youth enrolled in Exemplary In-School Demonstration Projects, funded by Youthwork, Inc., on issues such as career expectations, reflections on the training and education received, the skills acquired due to participation and changes in their self-image. Four hundred fifty-one interviews were conducted with youth participants. The report covers the period of September 1978 through August 1979.

Findings:

1. Close supervision of enrollees in work placements is crucial to success.

2. Individualized and extensive contact between enrollees and staff is very important.

3. Youth who have difficulty in traditional school environments do better in alternative schools.

4. Enrollee interests should be matched with job placements.

5. The Exemplary In-School Demonstration Projects are positively evaluated by the youth themselves.

Seiler, Joseph. "Prevocational and Vocational Training Programs," Breakthrough for Disadvantaged Youth, ed., William Mirengoff, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, 1969, pp. 139-181.

The main purpose of this paper is to identify and examine the potential or actual effectiveness and impact of innovative prevocational and vocational training practices implemented by experimental and demonstration projects authorized under the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) of 1962. Some of which are:

-- Prevocational training as precondition for effective skill training and employment

-- Work crews and work stations in public agencies as mechanisms for orienting youth to work demands and behaviors required in work settings

-- Implementation of manpower development programming through a coordinated multi-occupational and multi-service single-management framework

-- Fusion of curriculums for basic education and job skills institutional training, and coupling of basic education with on-the-job training.

Sockol, Richard A. and Thomas W. McClain, School/Business Partnership: A Practitioner's Guide. Massachusetts: Institute for Governmental Services, University of Massachusetts, 1978, 42 pgs.

This publication discusses in detail some of the projects that were initiated iin Boston, Massachusetts as a result of school/business partnerships which were concerned with school to work transition for young people. Some of which are: (1) Job Hunting Techniques of the Tri-lateral Council, New England Merchants National Bank, business partner of West Roxbury High, (2) Writing Skills and Technique Course conducted by the New England Life Insurance Company with the School Volunteers of Boston, (3) The Quincy Market Project operated as student-run business. A cooperative effort between the Federal Reserve Bank and the South Boston High School.

Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Catalog of Federal Youth Programs. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 456 pgs.

This catalog was developed and designed to communicate to state and local government and to community-based agencies programs. The catalog also serves as a reference for planning and policy-making groups, attempting to devise better methods of resolving problems which impact on young people. The descriptive, programmatic and budgetary information contained in the publication covers a wide spectrum of activities affecting the health, education and general welfare of America's youth and also includes material on specific topics, such as youth employment, community action program and projects which focus on particular environmental, recreational and cultural concerns.

U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Inquiries Unit. Youth Serving the Community: Realistic Public Service Roles for Young Workers. Washington, D.C.: 1979, 149 pgs.

This monograph presents information on public service jobs projects which are particularly suitable or can be adapted for youth. It is based on an extensive review of pertinent literature and on consultations with appropriate agencies, organizations, local officials and other knowledgeable individuals. It reflects the recent efforts of public and private agencies. The information presented can be used as a guide by prime sponsors in conceiving, planning, developing and implementing their own projects. A part of the monograph identifies and discusses some of the key elements, problems, and considerations involved in undertaking public service job projects suitable for youth. It includes topics such as identifying community needs, recognizing the needs of youth, staffing projects, and project goals, objectives and components.

U.S. Department of Labor, Office of the Secretary for Policy, Evaluation and Research, Employment and Training Administration. Conference Report on Youth Unemployment: Its Measurement and Meaning. Washington, D.C.: 1978, 396 pgs.

The analyses included in this volume cover a number of interrelated and dynamic aspects underlying our static measures. These papers document the very wide margin in determining whether youth are really inside or outside the labor force. There is an examination of the labor market and institutional and societal factors which affect the measured rates of employment and unemployment. Also there is a discussion of direct and indirect impacts of government activities. The final two papers focus on the use of employment and unemployment statistics in addressing questions about the scale of needed government initiatives and the distribution of resources.

Overall, this set of papers presents a panoramic review of the problems of gathering, interpreting and applying employment and unemployment data related to youth.

U.S. Department of Labor, Office of the Secretary, Women's Bureau. Young Women and Employment: What We Know and Need to Know About the School To-Work Transition. Washington, D.C.: 1978, 91 pgs.

This document focuses on the particular problems faced by young women in the school-to-work transition. These problems include transition problems faced by all youth as well as employment problems faced by all women. Although some differences were observed between male and female youth moving into the labor market, the data do not suggest that programs be restructured on the basis of sex.

Walther, Regis H. Analysis and Synthesis of DOL Experience in Youth Transition to Work Experience. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Office of Research and Development, 1976, 109 pgs.

This report reviews the experience with federal programs concerned with the transition from school-to-work. It extracts lessons and guiding principles which might prove useful for planning and administering training and employment programs. The current labor force situation of youth (persons 16-24 years of age) is reviewed, impediments to the employment of youth are examined, the demographic and attitudinal characteristics of hard-to-employ youth are analyzed, guiding principles developed, and program implications described. Recommendations are made relating to skill training, remedial education, work experience, assessment, counseling, job development and placement, and program coordination.

Work in America Institute, Inc. Job Strategies for Urban Youth. Scarsdale, New York: 1979, 102 pgs.

Sixteen pilot programs are presented in this volume, including a survey of job development approaches, many of which have not been tried before. A few may have been previously proposed. However, several have been modeled on actual programs now in operation, which, after considerable investigation and study, are judged to be worth trying in other places. Some of which are:

-- Jobs for Youth -- Vocational Foundation

-- Young Ex-Offender Transition Service

Youthwork National Policy Study. Forging New Relationships: The CETA/School Nexus. New York: Cornell University. 1979, 142 pgs.

This report pays particular attention to the matter of relations between CETA and various educational organizations, most particularly Local Educational Agencies (LEAs) and post-secondary institutions. Both the form and content of these relations are thought to be particularly important in enabling the goals of the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act (YEDPA) to be achieved. Most important this report isolates and analyzes those mechanisms of cooperation and communication which will enable both CETA and the schools to overcome the barriers between school and work by more closely linking education, employment, and training institutions. The focus of the assessment on CETA/School relations is on programmatic areas such as private sector involvement, youth initiated activities, academic credit for work experience, and career information.

POLICY AREA #2

Adams, Arvil V. and Garth L. Mangum. The Lingering Crisis of Youth Unemployment. Michigan: Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, 1978, 152 pgs.

This book is a reassessment of the youth unemployment problem. It is based on recent trends in youth unemployment from published sources and an additional analysis of a national sample of men and women, followed longitudinally over a seven-year period, late 1960's to early 1970's, beginning with youth aged 16-19.

Among the findings of this study is that early unfavorable labor market experience is related to subsequent labor market problems, and is manifested in relatively lower earnings, and more irregular employment patterns.

Anderson, Bernard E. Private Sector Efforts to Employ the Disadvantaged: The Second Round. Washington, D.C.: 1978.

The government is once again asking the business community to help contribute to reducing urban unemployment among minority youth and the disadvantaged. Economic and institutional changes in the American economy have created unemployment especially in the larger cities in the Northeast and the Mid-West. Persistent unemployment among racial minorities and the poor has affected youth to the point where many have withdrawn from actively participating in labor market activities. It seems that the private sector could absorb the urban unemployed; the cost of their support is a threat to the stable competitive system. Possible elements of an approach to solve the problem are:

1. Government incentives to the private sector to hire and train the disadvantaged,

2. Reexamination of hiring standards,

3. Greater commitment by the private sector.

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Many firms are currently involved in improving the quality of the labor supply rather than on providing regular, full-time jobs. Firms cooperating with the Carter Administration can receive the employment tax credit. It is speculated that the business community will use its resources effectively to reduce structural unemployment among the economically disadvantaged.

Corporation for Public/Private Ventures, Issues and Options for PSIP Implementation: The Experience of Twelve PIC's. Pennsylvania: Fall 1979, 35 pgs.

A status report of the efforts of twelve Private Industry Councils. This report provides information on the variety of organizational, membership, operational, program and resource issues that are being undertaken by these PIC's. No programs of high-risk youth are discussed.

Corporation for Public/Private Ventures, Public-Private Partnerships for Dealing with the Employment Problems of Youth. Pennsylvania: September 1977, 33 pgs.

This paper was prepared as part of the Ford Foundation's investigation of youth employment problems begun in February 1977. It explores the prospects for the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act (YEDPA) of 1977, and discusses the role of the intermediary corporations being established to oversee certain programs. It provides a rationale for use of intermediary corporations by the Office of Youth Programs, Department of Labor.

It outlines plans for the intermediary corporations implementing four programs, authorized under YEDPA. In the program seeking to involve the private sector in establishing more employment opportunities for youth, there is little previous experience. This new corporation will test a variety of models aimed at increasing private sector employment for youth.

de Lone, Richard H. Youth Employment and the Private Sector. Pennsylvania: Corporation for Public/Private Ventures, 1978, 28 pgs.

This report was a paper prepared for the National Commission on Manpower Policy Conference, "Creating Job Opportunities in the Private Sector," October 19-20, 1978.

The report discusses the extent of youth unemployment and targeting and training services to those youth most in need of such services.

It discusses present and past private sector experience with employment and training programs for youth, and attitudes of employers about government supported training programs. The basic problem of how to make the youngest, most disadvantaged and least educated members of the labor force more attractive to private sector employers is covered with many views being presented. The report describes one demonstration project being carried out by the Corporation for Public/Private Ventures, for DOL's Office of Youth Programs, incorporating several initiatives while involving private sector organizations.

Dockson, Robert R. "Solving the Hard-Core Unemployment Problem. Los Angeles Business and Economics, Vol. 4, No. 3, Spring 1979, pp. 12-13.

In spite of impressive overall gains in employment, hard-core structural unemployment remains a major problem in the U.S., especially with respect to certain groups such as minority teen-agers. The private sector can help eradicate this unemployment problem by shouldering some responsibility for developing programs to help these people. An examination of one such program, Youth Opportunities Unlimited (YOU), sponsored by a savings and loan association, indicates the factors necessary for success: (1) interaction with other employees in a normal work environment situation can aid in developing responsible personal habits. (2) There must be recognition that an adjustment period is needed by both the new employee and the regular employee. (3) The program must be viewed as the first step toward permanent employment. (4) The job itself must be productive and not just a mere shuffling of work from other employees. (5) The wholehearted support of top level management is needed.

MDC Inc., Worksite Activity Under the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act: An Interim Report. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration Office of Youth Programs, August 1978, 27 pgs.

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This report highlights YEDPA worksites in eight prime sponsor areas around the U.S. It covers type of work activity, attendance, attitude of the participants, supervision and products of the work.

Findings include a great diversity both in terms of the range of objectives, quality of performance and types of programs and activities.

Because YEDPA is an experimental program, many alternatives are being conducted and the diversity of projects is an expected result.

Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation, 1978 Annual Report. New York, 1978, 25 pgs.

This annual report describes the work of the Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation. Highlighted are the National Supported Work Demonstration, the WIN Research Laboratory Project, and the Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects.

National Child Labor Committee, Youth Serving the Community: Realistic Public Service Roles for Young Workers. Final Report. New York: March 1978, 106 pgs.

This is a survey of work experience projects which can be utilized as guides by program operators to initiate their own projects. The introductory chapter focuses on identifying some of the key elements, problems and considerations for initiating projects. Chapter II contains project descriptions organized by major areas of concern (e.g., housing, health, environment). A bibliography is included.

National Commission for Manpower Policy, Fourth Annual Report to the President and the Congress: An Enlarged Role for the Private Sector in Federal Employment and Training Programs. Washington, D.C.: 1978, 134 pgs.

This report is related to two earlier reports of the National Commission for Employment Policy, Job Creation Through Public Service Employment (March 1978) and An Assessment of CETA (May 1978).

This report recommends that policies which encourage more active participation of the private sector in federal job creation programs be strengthened.

This report includes chapters on the potential of the private sector, focusing on the structurally unemployed, the need for new institutional linkages and job creation in the public and private sectors.

Also included are conference summaries on "Improving Private Sector Job Opportunities for Selected Target Groups" and "The Role of Private Sector Employers in National Employment Policies."

National Commission for Manpower Policy. Public Service Employment and Other Responses to Continuing Unemployment: An Interim Report to the Congress of The National Commission for Manpower Policy. Washington, D.C.: 1975, 25 pgs.

This report presents the Commission's findings and recommendations based on its initial analyses of governmental responses to growing unemployment. Findings and recommendations are made with respect to public service employment; summer jobs for youth; unemployment insurance; and other special assistance to the unemployed. Additional recommendations are made regarding energy and its manpower implications, and the coordination of manpower and related programs. Preliminary comments are made concerning the Commission's initial steps toward the formulation of a national manpower policy.

Newberg, Adina. A Directory of Training and Employment Programs in the Private Sector; Emphasis: Disadvantaged Youth. The Corporation for Public/Private Ventures, Pennsylvania: 1979, 83 pgs.

A directory of 117 programs sponsored by the private sector for the training and employment of disadvantaged youth. Programs are grouped in three broad categories: Pre-employment, Skills Training, Career Pathways. Among the Pre-employment programs, youth involved were as young as 14, within the career exploration section, most provided services to youth over 16, while in the skills training section, most programs required participants to be over 18 years of age. No evaluation of programs is provided, and limited information is available on numbers actually served.

Saunders, David N. The Company Youth Keep: An Empirical Analysis of Job Finding Among Young Men 14-24. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower Research and Development, December 1974, 450 pgs.

This study examines the personal, social and economic correlates of job-finding of young men. The data base was the National Longitudinal Survey from 1966-1969. Younger, less educated youth relied more heavily on informal channels. Increasing age and education led to slight shift from informal to formal channels, although informal still dominated. As white youth matured, they relied less on friends, relatives and schools, and more on formal methods other than schools. For both races, increased education led to a rise in the use of formal techniques, particularly schools. While blacks relied more heavily on friends and relatives than did whites, race was less important than social class with higher social class youth showing a greater use of formal channels. Youth using formal channels tended to locate white-collar jobs, particularly professional and clerical; those relying on informal, had a greater chance of locating blue-collar jobs. Whites found the highest "quality" jobs through private agencies, newspapers and the "other" channel. Among both races, friends and relatives generally led to lower quality jobs. An extensive review of the literature on job-finding is included.

U.S. Department of Labor, Assessments of the Job Corps Performance and Impacts. Washington, D.C.: Employment and Training Administration, Office of Youth Programs. February 1979, 170 pgs.

This comprehensive report discusses Job Corps' performance in 1978, its impact on individuals served and its prospects for the future. Conclusions reached are that the Job Corps is a very successful program serving an extremely disadvantaged clientele.

Most successful training component of Job Corps in terms of percentage placed and amount of wages is training for construction industry at Civilian Conservation Centers. This can be ascribed to union construction programs at CCC's.

U.S. Department of Labor, Youth, Washington, D.C.: Employment and Training Administration, 1979, 25 pgs.

This booklet describes seven programs which are aimed at reducing youth unemployment. It includes entitlement projects which encourage young people to stay in school while providing part-time work. Other programs mentioned include Career Intern Program (CIP), Job Corps, Young Adult Conservation Corps (YACC), Summer Youth Employment Program (SYEP), Apprenticeship Programs under the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act (YEDPA).

Vogel, Anita S. A Retrospective Survey of Programs for Youth Employment in the Private Sector Sponsored by the United States Department of Labor. Pennsylvania: Corporation for Public/Private Ventures, March 1978, 39 pgs.

This paper discusses the history of youth-focused employment and training programs. It cites a variety of programs, giving information on their overall effect. Programs mentioned include:

. Pre-Employment Programs such as Experimental and Demonstration Youth Projects of MDTA, Neighborhood Youth Corps, Institutional MDTA, Job Corps, Opportunities Industrialization Centers (OIC), Training and Technology (TAT) and Apprenticeship Outreach Program.

. Placement without Formal On-the-Job Training such as Jobs Now.

. Employment Service Programs such as Youth Opportunity Centers and Rent-A-Kid.

Also discussed are barriers to youth employment and suggestions for incentives to employers hiring youth.

Conclusions are offered on the success of various initiatives and suggestions made for directing policy toward improving the employment prospects of high-risk youth.

POLICY AREA #3

Anderson, Bernard E. The Opportunities Industrialization Centers: A Decade of Community Based Manpower Services. Pennsylvania: University of Pennsylvania, 1976, 156 pgs.

The Opportunities Industrialization Center (OIC) is the nation's major community-based organization providing manpower development services to the disadvantaged. Chapter 1 of this report introduces the topic and outlines the major issues to be considered. Chapter 2 describes the nature of the urban job crisis and the social and economic conditions to which OIC was a response. Chapter 3 discusses the administrative structure and program organization of OIC. Chapter 4 traces the development and growth of private sector support of OIC. Chapters 5 and 6 track the development of OIC's partnership with government in the delivery of manpower services to the disadvantaged. Chapter 7 presents a summary and conclusion and draws implications from the past decade of OIC experience for the future of the organization.

de Lone, Richard H. Youth and the Private Sector. Pennsylvania: Corporation for Public/Private Ventures, 1978, 28 pgs.

In this paper de Lone addresses the problems of targeting. While attempts are made to target education and training programs for young people for whom labor market difficulties are precursors of adult labor market difficulties, it is hard to predict who those youth are. We use categories such as out-of-school, low income, and minority, but these definitions are not precise. Using duration of unemployment as a criteria is no good because it excludes first-time labor market entrants.

Income criteria are not always feasible because youth cannot adequately report family income.

Herrnstadt, Irwin L. The Implementation of CETA in Boston. Mass: Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1977, 101 pgs.

A case study of the introduction of the CETA services in Boston, Mass., was conducted (1) to chronicle and analyze the changes in employment and training planning and programs as the federal policy changes from a centralized and categorical policy to a decentralized one. (2) To examine the impact of those changes on employment and training programs and institutions, the internal structure and staffing of these institutions, program participants, and the community, and (3) to study how the CETA prime sponsor monitors and evaluates its programs.

Findings included the following: (1) Aside from public service employment, the introduction of CETA has not changed Boston's manpower system much, (2) a restructuring of the administrative system did permit incorporation of several New York programs, and did not permit special attention to the needs of ex-offenders, drug addicts, older workers, and women, and (3) due to the weakness of the local economy and administrative defects in the program there was a substantial cutback of on-the-job training. (This report concluded with twenty-two recommendations.)

Klein, Josephine. Training for the New Helping Professions-Community and Work. London, England: London University, 1973, 16 pgs.

This report describes how to manage and administer community and youth services, how to improve simple human relations, how to work with people in community and youth groups, creating new connections among people and how to introduce stimuli and new ideas into the helping professions.

It describes the need of the helping professions in community and youth work to change as the world changes.

Levenson, Bernard. Employment Opportunities of Negro and White Youth. New York: Columbia University, 1973, 182 pgs.

To assess employment opportunities of minority vocational high school graduates, this study analyzed the dissimilar rates at which whites, blacks and Puerto Ricans are placed in various curricula in vocational schools, and then attempted to determine whether ethnicity affected job opportunity and earnings. High school records were collated with social security work history records of 1100, 1956-63 New York City graduates of the High School for Fashion Industries.

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Mangum, Garth and John Walsh. Employment and Training Programs for Youth: What Works Best for Whom? Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, 1978.

This publication gives a breakdown of unemployment rates for teenagers in poverty and non-poverty areas, by race as well as vocational education completions and placements.

While unemployment rates are highest for the 16 to 17 year old groups, the severity of the problem is attenuated somewhat by the fact that about 85% are looking for part-time employment. The young teenagers having the greatest problem are those who are out of school. The 16 to 17 year nonwhite, school dropouts have the most severe unemployment problems of any other group, a startling 68.8 percent in October 1975.

MDC, Inc. Worksite Activity Under the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act: An Interim Report. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor Employment and Training Administration, Office of Youth Programs, August 1978, 27 pgs.

In this publication, reference is made to three areas where YEDPA funds are making a difference. Prior to YEDPA funding, these three prime sponsors had relatively few programs for youth.

In Colorado Springs, Colorado one of the prime sponsors mentioned above, a strong "Preventive" program has been mounted with YEDPA funds, concentrating on in-school youths and potential dropouts. In Stamford, Conn., a plan exists to involve youths in jobs, keyed specifically to their school vocational tracks. In Escambia County, Florida, CBOs have identified areas where youth programs should exist and YEDPA funds have been put into community centers for youth employment and training.

Rist, Ray C. Education and Employment Training: The Views of Youth. Interim Report #2. New York: Youthwork National Policy Study, Cornell University, 1979, 181 pgs.

This report lists a variety of recruitment sources:

School Personnel (teachers, guidance counselors, assistant superintendents)

Peers

Relatives

Mass Media

Community Agencies

School system personnel have access to in-school youth, but other means such as mass media announcements are needed for out-of-school youth.

Incentives to program participation - income most important to youth aged 14-17. Secondly, career and work-experience goals.

Programs should be designed narrowly enough to meet the needs of a particular target population, similar in age and situation.

Thomas, Gail E. Black Youth and the Labor Market: The Unemployment Dilemma.
Washington, D.C.: Cisa Corp., 1979, 56 pgs.

The paper examines the current problem of black youth unemployment from a theoretical perspective. Traditional sociological and economic theories applicable to the problems of unemployment and occupational and status achievement are initially reviewed. Next, the concept of 'sponsorship mobility' is utilized and elaborated as a policy approach to dealing with the problem of black and disadvantaged minority youth unemployment. The major hypothesis advanced and what forms the basis of the policy approach suggested is that: an improvement in employment opportunity for black and other disadvantaged youth can be facilitated through the establishment of functional support systems and sponsorship groups that effectively mediate the relationship between disadvantaged youth and the employment structure. Various strategies for formulating support systems and sponsorship groups are offered.

U.S. Congress. House Committee on Education and Labor. *Oversight Hearing on Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act*. Hearing Before the Subcommittee on Employment Opportunities of the Committee on Education and Labor, House of Representatives, Ninety-Fifth Congress, First Session. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, November 10, 1977.

Reported here is the oversight hearing on the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act to examine the problem of youth employment and the extent to which existing federal programs are addressing the problem. Major content is the testimony of four witnesses: Leon Anderson, Division of Human Resources, U.S. Forest Service, Department of Agriculture; Maudine R. Cooper, Deputy Director, Washington Bureau, National Urban League, Inc.; Maurice Dawkins, Opportunities Industrialization Centers; and Robert McConnon, Deputy Assistant Secretary for Employment and Training, Department of Labor. Statements, letters and supplemental materials relevant to the hearings are also included.

U.S. Department of Labor. *A Knowledge Development Plan for Youth Initiatives, Fiscal 1979*. Washington, D.C.: Employment and Training Administration, 1979.

In this publication's section on *Juvenile Delinquency Treatment and Prevention Demonstration*, reference is made to literature indicating a statistical relationship between joblessness and juvenile delinquency. Likewise, employment is accepted as a matter of faith as an important component of any treatment strategy. There has, however, been no large-scale, systematic experiment to determine the effectiveness of the employment approach in reducing crime and recidivism.

U.S. Department of Labor, *Summer Program for Economically Disadvantaged Youth (SPEDY)*. Washington, D.C.: Employment and Training Administration, 1978.

In this publication's section on eligibility and selection, a recruitment process is outlined for economically disadvantaged youth for a rural Minnesota community. Rural Minnesota CEP uses regional selection committees to make final determinations of SPEDY participants. A CEP Subgrantee, Ottertail-Wadena Community Action Council, groups enrollees with the minorities being those currently enrolled in the in-school YEPs, those who are economically disadvantaged, and those who are between the ages of 16-19. The selection committees consist of a school contact person (such as a school counselor), a rural Minnesota CEP person, State Job Service representative, local social service department and also two agency staff people. This local input into the selection process has generated positive community support.

United States General Accounting Office. Information on the Summer Youth Employment Program (DOL) HRD-77-121, June 1977, 6 pgs.

In this report on social targeting it was found that in operating the summer youth employment program, prime sponsors took applications and selected participants from those who met the age and family income eligibility criteria as DOL has not yet established special goals for the prime sponsor. Of the racial groups served in 1975, 52% were white with 48% from other races, including 43% black. In 1976, 40% white with 60% from other races, including 51% black. Unemployment rates published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for ages 16 through 19 are shown in the following table:

	Unemployment Rates	
	Black & Other Races	White
September 1975	37.2	17.4
September 1976	38.5	16.5
May 1977	38.7	15.7

Estimates of inner city unemployment of black youth exceeded 50%.

Vocational Foundation, Inc. Our Turn to Listen (Video Tape Presentation), New York, N.Y.

This documentary examines the jobless rate of disadvantaged youth inside a large metropolitan area. It specifies the day-to-day frustrations minority youth face in their endless efforts to secure employment. It also looks at how public officials view the jobless rate of youth within this city. These public officials represent experts in the areas of employment, education, and crime.

According to one source in this documentary one out of two teens in large cities are unemployed. The Bureau of Labor Statistics is quoted as saying that 38% of all minority inner city youth are unemployed. The 44% average that these two figures make up demonstrates that the jobless rate of youth unemployment has reached epidemic proportions and will continue to get worse unless those who decide policy take issue and begin targeting services to those reflecting the need.

Weissman, Harold H. Employment and Educational Services (In the Mobilization for Youth Experiences). New York: Association Press, 1969.

In this book, Weissman discusses a policy conflict developed within the Division of Employment Opportunities over what was to be demonstrated and who was to be beneficiary of the agency's services. Initially, the division was unable to provide enough training positions for all applicants, therefore, choices had to be made. The director argued that delinquents were the chief target of change efforts and that delinquent youth should receive priority in service.

Wijting, Jan P. "Employing the Recovered Drug Abuser-Viable," Personnel. Vol. 56N3, May/June 1979, pp. 56-63.

According to information gathered by the National Association on Drug Abuse Problems, Inc. (NADAP), most rehabilitated drug abusers are capable of securing and retaining employment and are generally regarded by their employers as satisfactory employees. Most rehabilitated drug abusers who find successful employment have some qualities, such as youth, education, marketable skills, etc. that offset the stigma of having been involved with drugs. Those former abusers who do not have successful work experiences usually had been more deeply involved with the drug subculture.

More placement programs, such as NADAP's are needed in order to design and implement effective employment programs for the recovered drug abuser.

Wurzburg, Gregory. Improving Job Opportunities for Youth (A Review of Prime Sponsor Experience in Implementing the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act). August, 1978.

YEDPA targets efforts specifically at young adults. Sub-targets are identified by Congressional sponsors and the DOL. YCCIP aims its services at 16-19 year old youths who are out of work. YEPT is for unemployed and underemployed youths from families whose current gross family income is less than 85% of the BLS lower living standard. Prime sponsors are concentrating on serving economically disadvantaged youths. (Youths from families whose income is 70% of the BLS lower living standard, or less.)

Youth Services Commission. Youth: Comprehensive Juvenile Delinquency Prevention Plan. Richmond, Virginia: June 1978, 58 pgs.

This article captions youth unemployment in the city of Richmond, Virginia, as one of the major contributors to crime within that city. Based upon the youth unemployment statistics from the 1970 census and the current jobless rate for workers of all ages, the Office on Youth estimates that the unemployment rate for youth in the city of Richmond, who are not in school, stands at between 25 and 30%. This estimate indicates that there are between 2,600 and 3,000 Richmond young people in the 16 to 21 age range who are now seeking regular, full time jobs without success.

Zuckerman, Alan. "Targeting CETA Services," Adherent: A Journal of Comprehensive Employment Training and Human Resource Development, Vol. 6, No. 1, May 1979, pp. 37-42.

The article presented in this column was adapted from a presentation at the spring session of the United States Conference of Mayors, April 25-27, 1979.

While the contents of the article support the efforts of targeting, there is very little agreement on where the priorities for service should be placed.

In order to target those youth most in need, CETA must analyze proficiency, skills which are needed in the labor market, attitudes toward work, physical and mental handicaps and other real barriers to employment. These characteristics both determine real need and also require specific services to overcome barriers or to compensate for past deficiencies.

POLICY AREA #4

Community Action for Youth, Inc. Job Opportunity for Youth-Final Report. Ohio: November 1965, 82 pages.

This report describes an employment program conducted over 20 months for youth of the Hough area of Cleveland, who were seriously disadvantaged in the job market. Approximately 42 of every 100 youths served were tested for aptitude and intelligence. The report describes the characteristics of the youths served and the program that served them and makes recommendations for future programs based on the project experience.

Freeberg, Norman E. and Benjamin Shimberg. Validating of Assessment Measures for Use With Disadvantaged Enrollees in Work-Training Programs. Final Report. New Jersey: Educational Testing Service, May 1977, 95 pgs.

This report attempts to validate the battery of tests dealing with attitudinal, reasoning and job-orientation skills against trainee performance, and criterion information obtained at the completion of the OIC training program and at approximately six to eight months following that training.

Gordon, Jesse E. "Testing, Counseling and Supportive Services," Breakthrough for Disadvantaged Youth, ed., William Mirengoff, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, pp. 61-116.

This report seeks to describe the major features of assessment, counseling, and supportive services as reported in the documents produced during the period 1962-65 by the experimental and demonstration (E&D) projects for disadvantaged youth funded under the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA). It also attempts to identify new knowledge and techniques which represent innovations in working with these youth, and focuses on implications for future policies, programs, and strategies.

Kirkpatrick, J.J., R.B. Ewen, R.S. Barett and R.A. Katzell. Testing and Fair Employment: Fairness and Validity of Personnel Tests for Different Ethnic Groups. New York: New York University Press, 1968, 145 pgs.

Examines the issues in testing for employment selection. Discusses validity of testing for different ethnic and racial groups. Reporting results of five studies conducted to examine differential validities of selections tests are provided.

Mangum, Garth and John Walsh. Employment and Training Programs for Youth: What Works Best for Whom? Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, May 1978, 207 pgs.

This report assesses what is known about the relative effectiveness of various employment and training services for youth; the relative effectiveness of various techniques used in providing employment and training services to youth; the administrative practices which have either enhanced or vitiated employment and training services; and which services have proven most and least effective for specific target groups.

Chapter Three identifies the social services assessment model for employment and training, whereby attempts are made to determine the strengths and needs of the participant.

National League of Cities & United States Conference of Mayors. Public Employment Program and the Cities, Volume II - Special Report. Washington, D.C.: June 19, 1973, 300 pgs.

This volume of the report focuses on three principle areas: (1) Hiring of significant population segments, (2) transition to Unsubsidized Employment, (3) public service impact of POP. The report reflects the perspective of the city program agents and presents PEP as viewed and administered by them. It does not deal with the implementation and operation of PEP by state or county program agents.

In the transition to unsubsidized employment a substantial number of cities used existing civil service tests in the selection of PEP participants. Almost all of the cities used some type of selection device.

Nellum, A.L. and Associates. A Systems Approach for EDP/Counseling Development in CETA. Pennsylvania: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Region III, Regional Training Center, 1976.

Described in this book is a systems approach to counseling, with employability development as its theme. It defines counseling within CETA and describes how to achieve a systems approach in an on-going counseling program.

Under the caption of TA Resources, methods of assessing the disadvantaged in manpower programs are reviewed and analyzed.

Tyler, Ralph Winfred. "The Competencies of Youth," From School to Work: Improving the Transition, A Collection of Policy Papers Prepared for the National Commission for Manpower Policy, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976, pp. 89-116.

This paper explores the competencies of youth to locate, obtain and perform adult-type employment. Since few comprehensive studies have been made on the competencies required for locating, obtaining and performing the adult-type jobs that are available for initial employment and no comprehensive study exists that assesses all the prerequisite competencies for that transition, this paper pieced together partial data and makes inferential leaps where the data is incomplete and points to possible interprretations.

Walther, Regis H. Analysis and Synthesis of DOL Experience in Youth Transition to Work Experience. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Office of Research and Development, December 1976, 109 pgs.

This report reviews the experience with federal programs concerned with the transition from school to work and extracts lessons and guiding principles which might prove useful for planning and administering training and employment programs. The current labor force situation of youth is reviewed and impediments to the employment of youth are examined. Recommendations are made relating to assessment and testing of youth, skill training, remedial education, work experience, counseling, job development and placement.

POLICY AREA #5

Campbell. Overview of Youth Employment Programming. Texas: Texas Department of Community Affairs Youth Services Division, 1977, 51 pgs.

This study examines prime sponsors of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) in Texas during late 1976, to determine in what areas of youth programming they would like training and/or technical assistance. Four program areas were examined: job training, job placement, summer employment and career education.

Genessee Intermediate School District Vocational Education and Career Development Services. A Comprehensive Career Development Employability, Vocational and Coping Skills Training Program for YETP/SPEDY Youth in the Genessee Intermediate School District. Michigan: 1978, 84 pgs.

This program examined over 500 youths between 14 and 21 years of age involved in the program. Significant gains are reported for their skills in exploring careers, making decisions and planning to reach chosen career goals. In addition, a 75% increase in the level of coping skills for school and work settings were found as a result of a systematic delivery of twelve one hour modules. Work experience provided youth with income to help keep them in school and job experiences which will help prepare them for future employment, enhanced the program.

Manpower Demonstration Research Corp. The Youth Entitlement Demonstration - (An Interim Report on Program Implementation), Washington, D.C.: 1979, 261 pgs.

This research rrport covers the planning, start-up and early site operations of one of four demonstration projects, through September 1978.

It seeks to document and analyze the institutional and programmatic role of schools and the prime sponsors. Also, to analyze the adaptability of CETA to the requirements of operating a job entitlement program, to study the process of recruitment, enrollment and job creation.

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MDC Inc. Worksite Activity Under the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act: An Interim Report. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Office of Youth Programs, August, 1978, 27 pgs.

The intent of this project was to gain a first-hand observation for what was going on at these work sites. Information collected focused on what the youths were being paid for how many hours of what sort of effort; what kind of supervision they were getting; how much and what kind of discipline they were receiving (or resisting); what their attendance records were like, whether they were enthusiastic or bored; and what products were issuing from their work.

National Manpower Institute. Work and Service Experience for Youth. Washington, D.C.: 1978, 147 pgs.

This study indicates that the percentage of young people who both go to school and work increased from 28.6% in 1965 to 33.8% in 1975. With this in mind, work service programs should provide young people with exposure to career positions; provide opportunities to learn about adult work attitudes and habits; provide for a meaningful interaction and communication with adults (socialization skills); afford youth the opportunity to develop skills and abilities that will enable them to learn in settings outside the classroom; and offer youth an opportunity to learn responsible behavior by experiencing the consequences and costs of their behavior in an adult work related setting.

Systems Research Inc. In School Youth Manpower: A Guide to Local Strategies and Methods. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Research and Development, 1973, 83 pgs.

In terms of Matching and Alignment this document refers to those job assignment activities which encompass matching and assignment of the most suitable and mutually satisfactory job for each enrollee and employer, and training for enrollees in the arts, skills and behaviors necessary to carry out their job responsibilities. These activities must be performed wisely, since a successful job assignment is based on a careful match of enrollee abilities, personal circumstances and vocational interest and the employer's job requirements.

Workmanship Training - An Area of Emphasis. This report indicates that the workmanship training strategy is designed to increase the disadvantaged youth's knowledge of desired work habits and norms. It presumes that good work habits, an ability to get along with the supervisor and co-workers, as well as adherence to work norms, are necessary conditions of employability. Actual job assignments are not so important as the transfer of knowledge concerning proper work habits.

U.S. Department of Labor Manpower Administration, Preparing Disadvantaged Youth for Work. Reprints from the Employment Service Review. Washington, D.C.: 20 pgs.

Work Adjustment Training - This study concluded that traditional techniques of education and preparation for work which are useful with the average unemployed, fail with disadvantaged youth. Evaluation, work adjustment training and other remedial procedures must be tailored to the particular needs of disadvantaged youth. Tasks and procedures must be culturally accepted and acceptable to the youth's value system.

Jobseeking Patterns of Disadvantaged Youth - This program focused on 450 youths, all having in common a lack of direction and commitment to finding and holding a steady job. Some findings indicated occupational titles of jobs meant little to youths in the program. Their exposure to persons with real work experience was almost exclusively limited to those in unskilled, semi-skilled, service and domestic occupations.

U.S. Department of Labor, Assessments of the Job Corps Performance and Impacts. Washington, D.C.: Employment and Training Administration, Office of Youth Programs, February, 1979, 170 pgs.

An evaluation of the Job Corps Programs indicated, in order to maintain their level of achievement, continued assessments of training programs must be made to insure participants receive salable skills. New training programs such as solar energy technology, ship building trades and computer technology, are being developed as a result of the current shift in today's labor market demand. The upgrading of training techniques to keep pace with changes in occupations and elimination of training in occupations for which there is low demand is essential.

POLICY AREA #6

Boylan, Hunter R. Problems and Potentials of Individualized Instruction for Disadvantaged Students, Washington, D.C.: 1976, 23 pgs.

This paper describes the operation and results of an individualized center funded under an Office of Education grant for the provision of special services to disadvantaged students. There are remedial, developmental, and general education courses for disadvantaged students enrolled at Bowling Green State University. An outline of program operations is provided, including descriptions of courses, instructional methods used, and services offered in support of instructional activities. The outcomes of program operation are described and student achievement data is provided to document these outcomes. Problems encountered in program development and course implementation are discussed and attempted solutions are described. On the basis of experience and research, it is concluded that individualized instructional techniques tend to result in higher grades and better mastery of subject matter for disadvantaged students. It is suggested that these techniques have considerable potential for application in remedial and developmental instructional settings.

Brown, Barbara, Horovitz and Others, Alternative Responses to the Problems of Delinquent Behavior Patterns of Youth, Providence Mental Health Center, Rhode Island: 1977.

The document reports the suggestions offered by workshop participants regarding alternative responses to the problems of delinquent behavior patterns in youth. Recommendations offered include the following: priority must be given to services to children in need, with the goal of preventing entrance into the traditional justice system; programs should be encouraged with priority going to high risk locals where parents could attend parent education seminars; and helping professionals should be specifically trained for intensive work with troubled families and for involvement with resistant adolescents. Several models (including the job prep model of Hartford, Connecticut; the National Youth Project using minibikes, which offers community based services; and the Youth Diversionary Program of the Rhode Island Opportunities Industrialization Center) are considered.

Enright, William J. and Gary S. Graham. The Development of a Comprehensive Basic Education System for Alternative Education Programs. California: Graham Associates, Inc., 1975, 69 pgs.

This report details work done in seven demonstration sites in the adaptation of the Job Corps Programmed Learning System for use in a variety of alternative education programs. This system, as adapted by Graham Associates, came to be known as the New Education Program (NEP). The report discusses characteristics of the NEP system, the specific way it was utilized to meet the needs of different student populations, and the current status of the NEP curriculum as a model basic education system for manpower training programs.

Miles, H. Guy. Final Report on Developing Model NYC Programs for Rural Youth. Minnesota: North Star Research and Development Institute, 1971.

This report pinpointed the following suggestions: The counselor working with the new enrollee should develop a set of goals to be attained by the youth during the program enrollment. The report further emphasizes that in developing the employability plan, one should take into consideration the goals that have been set. The enrollee will be categorized according to needs. Skill training should be relevant to the enrollee's training plan and should be related realistically to the job market, either rural or urban.

National Commission on Resources for Youth, New Roles for Youth in the School and the Community, Citation Press, 1974.

This report indicates that sometimes out of school employment coupled with its money earning opportunities seems more stimulating and more worthwhile than the harder to conceive long range possibilities of a planned educational program. This is particularly true for students who are attending schools that are not making their school program stimulating. In addition, the student is not being helped to recognize the present and future satisfactions and values of education. Entrepreneurial programs of many types have originated in schools as a result. Students benefit from participating in learning programs that relate to their personal hopes and plans.

The National Urban Coalition. Youth Perspectives: Employability Development Programs and the World of Work. Washington, D.C.: 1978, 24 pgs.

The document reports the suggestions offered by workshop participants at regional youth employment seminars conducted by the National Urban Coalition.

Recommendations offered include the following:

1. In-school programs should provide more occupational information and counseling to smooth the transition from school to work. The Continuous Longitudinal Manpower Survey (CLMS) of the Census Bureau should be used to identify factors that may be associated with a successful transition.

2. An analysis should be made of the merits of work experience programs compared with those of in-school programs. Such an analysis would assist in determining which type of training is suitable for an individual young person, as opposed to the current practice of haphazard assignments of young people in both programs.

Taylor, Marie. "How to Play Games for Fun and Profit," Adherent, A Journal of Comprehensive Employment Training and Human Resource Development, Vol. 4, August 1977, pp. 35-38.

Opportunities Industrialization Centers, Inc. (OIC) instructors, orientation specialists, counselors, and other group facilitators are playing games -didactics - with an increasing degree of success. OIC staffs have demonstrated an ability to provide structured activities that are both relevant and enjoyable. These activities have been designed to increase self-awareness, facilitate the individualized learning process, and enhance curriculum related to both the affective and cognitive areas of education. Structured experiences emphasize an experimental or reality-based learning approach in which the learners are directly involved in the process. Example of didactics that can be adapted for use in the cognitive area are found in many of the games we have known and loved for years - password, concentration, twenty thousand dollar pyramid, and beat the clock. An example of an affective didactic is the 'I am becoming a person who...' exercise.

Youthwork, Inc. Public Forum on the Education and Employment of High Risk Youth. Washington, D.C.: February 2, 1979, 93 pgs.

This document reports on the suggestions offered by the forum's participants regarding alternative responses to the problems of education and employment of high-risk youth.

The report suggests that all contracts over $500,000 must contain a teenage employment and training component. This would ensure that youth would receive on-the-job training as well as facilitate the entry of such persons into the economy.

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POLICY AREA #7

Bell, T.H. "Learning to Work -- or Working to Learn." Paper presented at the Annual Convocation of Opportunities Industrialization Centers of America, Atlanta, Georgia: February 4, 1976.

This speech discusses several of the exemplary dropout prevention programs sponsored by the Office of Education. The basis of all the programs, whether they be for dropouts from school or for dropouts from life, is that once people find out that there is work to be done in the world, and that they will be welcomed and rewarded for doing it, they apply themselves to learning what must be mastered. The hardest task these programs face is to convince untrained people who have experienced nothing but failure that there is a place for themselves in the world. Special recognition is given to the OIC, which received a grant from the Office of Education to provide work-study opportunities for future black businessmen.

Mathematica Policy Research and the Institute for Research on Poverty, University of Wisconsin. Analysis of Nine-Month Interviews for Supported Work: Results of an Early Sample, New York: Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation, 1977, 80 pgs.

The report covers a sample of 691 ex-addicts, ex-offenders and youth at seven program sites, 356 program participants (or experimental) and 335 "controls" (persons equally eligible for the program but assigned by lot to non-participant status) -- and is based on the results of an interview administered to the entire sample nine months after the experimentals enrolled in the program. Findings show positive effect of supported work.

Miller, Patricia and William Simon. Do Youth Really Want to Work? A Comparison of the Work Values and Job Perceptions of Younger and Older Men. Paper presented at Conference on Employment Statistics and Youth, held at Institute of Industrial Relations, UCLA, on February 11-12, 1978.

This paper examines the work values of youth using data from a national random sample of 1992 men between the ages of 18 and 49. A varimax factor analysis of 27 items concerning work values produces six factors: Intrinsic work rewards, economic records, security rewards, social rewards, interpersonal rewards, and anti-work ethic. Examination of a comparable set of items

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concerning workers' perceptions of access to these rewards indicates that older men consistently and sometimes substantially, report a greater satisfaction in their present jobs in terms of these factors. Unemployment is not associated with work values. Ethnic minorities appear to under-value intrinsic work rewards and over-value economic rewards, security rewards, and the anti-work ethic. The analysis concludes that substantial continuity characterize the work values of both younger and older men.

National Commission on Resources for Youth. New Roles for Youth in the School and the Community. New York: Citation Press, 1974, 245 pgs.

The projects reported in this book have been studied, and they are judged to be examples that do provide opportunities for youth to take initiative and to carry on activities that are socially constructive and productive and for which young people can take major responsibilities. The seven types of programs described have been developed in varying forms in a number of communities, thus indicating their potential for wider use.

The seven types of youth programs described here are not believed to be an inclusive list of all kinds now in existence, but they do represent a variety of the kinds of personal roles and forms of expression through which young people may make significant social contributions. The projects presented cited youth participating in the following roles: Curriculum Builders, Teachers, Community Manpower Entrepreneurs, Community Problem-Solvers, Communicators and Resources for Youth. The description of the projects include how they began, how they are organized, how they are integrated into the curriculum, how they are financed, how participants are trained, and many other operational details.

National Council on Employment Policy, Youth Perspectives: Case Study Comments on Qualitative Research Methodologies, Washington, D.C.: 1979, 27 pgs.

The Youth Perspectives Study is designed to explore and analyze youth employment and training needs and CETA program experiences from a participant's view. The research is focused directly on the attitudes, characteristics, and experience of young people enrolled in CETA programs.

Material was collected through a series of intensive interviews with selected YEDPA participants in four geographic localities.

National Office for Social Responsibility. Linking Youth Services Systems: An Approach to Integrated Programming, Maryland: 1977, 102 pgs.

This handbook details an integrated approach to youth service programming employed in the Oakland, California Community Services Project. The goal of the project was to provide 45 minority youth with an opportunity for full-time community service. This was to be accomplished through intensive training and worksite development in community service organizations in Alameda County. Implemented as a demonstration project of the National Office for Social Responsibility from September 1, 1975 to September 15, 1976, the objective was to create an environment where young people gain access to socially desirable roles, develop positive labeling and reduce alienation from the larger social order. Program and environmental linkages were established, and the youth underwent training in the following areas: Peer Counseling, Value Clarification and Problem-Solving, Community Organization, Group Processes, Program Planning, Recreational Skills, Casework, Interviewing and Data Collection Skills, Preplacement and Post-placement Follow-up Skills, and Team Building and Supervisory Techniques.

Schneider, Debra, Paul R. Stuhmer, Roger E. Hamlin and Robert C. Muth. Youth Employment Money: Designing Your Local Program, Michigan: Michigan State University, 1977, 108 pgs.

This handbook contains two parts: Part One is a brief explanation of the Youth Employment Act's major provisions. Part Two offers some suggestions for program structure, some innovative program examples and several model program proposals. Appendices include the national funding breakdown under the Act, anticipated proposal and program deadlines and the text of the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977.

U.S. Department of Labor. Assessments of the Job Corps Performances and Impacts. Washington, D.C.: Employment and Training Administration, Office of Youth Programs, February, 1979, 170 pgs.

The section on Non-Economic Impacts of the Job Corps Report Number Nine, indicates that Job Corps had a positive impact on five different areas of non-economic outcomes. Three months or more in Job Corps led to improvement in the following areas:

1. job seeking skills
2. job satisfaction
3. attitude toward authority
4. self-esteem and
5. criminal justice system involvement.

U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration. Knowledge Development Under the Youth Initiatives: Proceedings of an Overview Conference, October 5-6, 1978. Washington, D.C.: 1978, 235 pgs.

Brandeis University Center for Public Service, organized a Conference of 1978 Youth Knowledge Development Activities which brought together the researchers on the major projects and many of the key players who translated the findings into policy. The major purpose was to lay the conceptual groundwork for a continuing assessment and modification proces.

The results are important in several ways: First, there is presented basic information about the projects and the related research. Second, the discussions suggest ways in which the projects are interrelated. Third, the needs for greater coordination and more careful time-sequencing of results are made apparent. Fourth, the complexity of demonstration, evaluation and research in this area becomes clear. Fifth, the varying perspectives with the research community are suggested as well as the different way of approaching problems. Sixth, a realistic sense of the limitations on research and evaluation activity is demonstrated. Seventh, areas where more work is needed are identified. Eighth, the interrelationship between information, knowledge and policy is highlighted.

Wallace, Phyllis Ann. Pathways to Work, Massachusetts: D.C. Heath and Company, 1974, 117 pgs.

The central finding of this report is that peer groups' support and reinforcement operate in strong and positive ways to counteract some of the negative influences from the community and the home.

The exploratory study by the Metropolitan Applied Research Center (MARC) of unemployment among black female teenagers in two urban poverty neighborhoods in New York City demonstrated that it is possible to provide resources to enable these young women to enter and to take continuous steps to remain in the labor market.

The interactive mechanism was a peer group network. Its central activity was the strengthening of the youth themselves in developing job orientation for themselves and others.

It appears that black teenage families are among the least preferred workers in urban labor markets; they experience major difficulties in finding jobs. The MARC exploratory project on unemployment among black teenage females was concerned with how these young women perceived the characteristics and availability of work, the desirability of work, and their job expectations and opportunities.

Some of the findings from the study are:

1. The teenage peer group (16 to 19) played a powerful role in influencing work attitudes and changing work behavior of this teenage out-of-school/out-of-work population.

2. Black teenage females who developed positive work orientation lacked both the information and knowledge of how to get a job.

Walther, Regis H. The Measurement of Work-Relevant Attitudes. Virginia: National Technical Information Service, 1975, 18 pgs.

This final report is on the development of a Work-Relevant Attitudes Inventory (WRAI) for use in diagnosing the needs of individuals and evaluating the effectiveness of manpower programs. The WRAI was able to differentiate between subjects making a "good" and a "poor" adjustment to work. In addition, positive changes in WRAI scores were associated with a "good" adjustment. The WRAI also correlated with counselor ratings and with achievement test scores in reading and mathematics. It was concluded that the WRAI had demonstrated its usefulness as a measure of program effectiveness and as a help in diagnosing the needs of new program participants.

A factor analysis of the items supported the conclusion that optimism, self-confidence and unsocialized attitudes were three important underlying dimensions.

The WRAI proved in the reported studies to be an instrument with considerable promise both for program evaluation and for diagnosis of individuals.

Young, Mary E. Work Attitudes in the Civilian Sector, Virginia: National Technical Information Service, 1975, 183 pgs.

Reports on work attitudes are covered including studies on the attitudes of youth, hardcore unemployed, and minority groups.

COMPREHENSIVE BIBLIOGRAPHIES

Note: Chapter and Policy Area Numbers are synonomous

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Public Forum

On the Education and Employment of High-Risk Youth

February 2, 1979
Washington, D. C.

Youthwork, Inc.

INTRODUCTION

Youthwork, Inc., is an intermediary corporation formed in January 1978 by a consortium of private foundations to help the Office of Youth Programs of the U.S. Department of Labor implement the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977. An intermediary corporation is a private non-profit organization that assists government agencies to program public funds. Youthwork is an intermediary between the private and public sectors; it is a private/public partnership.

As part of this partnership, Youthwork conducted a public forum on the education and employment of high-risk youth on February 2, 1979. The term "high-risk" emcompasses long-term unemployed youth, teenage parents, ex-juvenile justice offenders, youth with a history of drug or alcohol abuse, and high school dropouts.

The forum's purpose was to solicit advice and information from private citizens and government officials on the design of a $5 million national grants competition that Youthwork will conduct in spring 1979 for exemplary in-school projects serving high-risk youth. In other words, Youthwork through the forum actively sought out the assistance of concerned persons familiar with the problems of young people before it started telling local schools, agencies, and community organizations what they could and could not do to obtain a federal grant. The forum thus served a major purpose of an intermediary corporation: to enable private citizens to participate in the allocation of public monies.

The present volume reproduces a partial transcript of the forum. Readers of the transcript may learn for themselves what a valuable quantity of expert advice and information was obtained. Some editorial deletions from the testimony have been made in the interests of clarity and continuity.

On behalf of the Youthwork Board of Directors and the staff, I can say that the information gained at the forum has proved exceptionally useful. Much of this information was translated into the text of the application guidelines for the grants, and all of the recommendations of forum witnesses and panelists will bear on the actual selection of grantees.

Special thanks are due Rep. Parren J. Mitchell (D.-Md.), who kindly obtained authorization for Youthwork to use a hearing room of the Congressional Annex Building in Washington, and to the many witnesses who took time from busy schedules to assist not just Youthwork but also the nation's young people.

Finally, I want to offer my personal thanks to Youthwork staff members Rudi Boone and Robert Eckert for all their efforts in developing and coordinating the forum. Special thanks, too, to Youthwork associates Regina Carmel, Barbara Hampson, and LaVonne Manley for their invaluable assistance.

Corinne H. Rieder
Executive Director
Youthwork, Inc.

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PUBLIC FORUM ON THE EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT OF HIGH-RISK YOUTH

FEBRUARY 2, 1979

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Morning Session

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: Good morning. I'd like to welcome you all here to this forum on education and employment of hard-to-reach youth on behalf of Youthwork. I would also like to thank you for taking time from your busy schedules to come to this hearing.

The purpose of today's forum is to discern the various problems and issues of serving the needs of the hard-to-reach youth: youth out of work who face prolonged unemployment, teenage parents, juvenile-justice offenders, high school dropouts.

As you may know, Youthwork is a nonprofit organization incorporated just a year ago, on January 30, 1978, in an effort to create a public/private partnership between a consortium of five foundations and the Office of Youth Programs of the U.S. Department of Labor. Youthwork's mission is to promote the employability of young people, especially through our institutions of education and learning and other community service organizations. Our primary task during this past year has been to administer about 60 exemplary in-school demonstration projects under the Youth Employment Demonstration Projects Act of 1977, YEDPA. Other Youthwork activities under YEDPA include the preparation of grant application guidelines, identifying and recommending funding of exemplary programs, providing technical assistance to projects, developing a knowledge base about education-work transition programs, and participating in the development of a national youth policy.

Under Youthwork's first national competition held in the spring of 1978, the Department of Labor, acting on Youthwork's recommendations, made grants totaling $15 million to 46 projects selected from 522 proposals. The projects, which feature interrelated components of study and work in conjunction with special support services to aid youth in the transition from school to work, seek to foster closer cooperation between local education institutions, community-based organizations and the CETA system.

In the spring of 1979, Youthwork will conduct another national grants competition, which will seek to identify exemplary programs for young people not normally served: the handicapped, long-term unemployed teenagers, teenage parents, dropouts, and offenders. We are holding these forums to increase our understanding of the relevant issues and problems, particularly now as the Department of Labor and Youthwork begin to formulate goals, priorities and grant application guidelines. Today's forum will provide you and Youthwork with an opportunity to hear from young people who have experienced employment problems, operators of programs designed for youth with special needs, and public officials.

As many of you know, my own special interests and concerns lie with the rural youth of this country, a population officially estimated at more than 4.5 million youth, 14 to 18 years old, living in 14,000 small towns and countryside communities that make up rural America. Some of us believe the figure is much greater, but we are going to use the official estimate today.

These youth have been trapped between the proverbial rock and hard place for decades, or as we say in the country, between the sap and the bark. The choice for most rural young people has been both simple and disheartening--stay in the rural community and face a future of underemployment or migrate to a metropolitan area and become part of a larger, low-echelon, surplus labor pool.

Rural youth have particular problems, some of us feel with lack of exposure in the ways of work, lack of education, and in the case of my own home state, coming from an educational system that yet doesn't have compulsory education as a value or law in the state.

The adverse effects of this dilemma have spared neither urban nor rural communities. Rural migrants with their still unrecognized special problems have swelled the ranks of the urban ghetto population and have thus increased the difficulties faced by all reformist attempts to eradicate poverty and improve the quality of life in America.

Our agenda today reflects the interest shown by a wide variety of people in both the public and private sectors in aiding unemployed, hard-to-reach youth located in both our major metropolitan areas and rural communities that must make the transition from school to the world of work and self-reliance.

Today we will hear from experts and government officials on the national, state and local levels who will share their knowledge of hard-to-reach youth in the arenas of education and work. In addition, operators of local, exemplary programs will testify about their experiences.

We are fortunate to have with us some young people who are participants in programs designed to aid the hard-to-reach youth of this country.

Without further delay, I would like to move into the program by calling on Parren J. Mitchell, Chariman of the House Banking Subcommittee on Domestic Monetary Policies.

THE HONORABLE PARREN J. MITCHELL

U.S. HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

MR. MITCHELL: Thank you very much, Mr. Chairman.

It seems to me that the problem of youth unemployment is this country--and I'm going to focus on primarily on black youth with occasional references to Hispanic youth--is a manifestation, really, of two flaws in our system. There is a basic flaw in the economic foundation of America, and a flaw in the moral foundation of America. They combine to create what I call a fatal flaw. Now, to look at that flaw we have to look at the structure of capitalism in this country. The theory is that under the capitalistic system, we operate on the premise of supply and demand, and under that premise, it's assumed that the quantity of goods as well as the price of goods is determined by those who consume the goods. The theory also states if there is an excessive demand for goods and services, new capitalists will surface; new businesses will get started; there will be expansion of capitalistic efforts to reap the benefit of the additional demands for goods and services. It is at this point that the fatal flaw reflects itself in terms of American blacks and Hispanic people. We are led astray. We are not and have not been actively engaged in the capitalist class of America. We simply are not. There is an ongoing exclusionary pattern in the American economy that has relegated black people and Hispanic people and women to the role of producers and consumers. We are not in the role of supplying capitalism with capital for expansion and growth.

Obviously when you create a class of producers and consumers, then, in effect, you have created a substratum in the American society. To put it another way--the economy of America has created a caste system, and that caste system structurally and operationally relegates the burden of the dysfunctioning of the American economic system on blacks, Hispanics and the disadvantaged.

I won't take the time to recite the long history of this unfortunate condition. Nor will I get into my own political ideologies today, but I would suggest to you that we all should have an interest in reading, catalystic interest; and I have read Marx, and something struck me in the writings of Marx that I think is very important, at least for our consideration. Marx wrote that in order for capitalism to survive--in order for it to survive--there must be a permanent reserve of unemployed. I am not a Marxist. I merely advance that little bit of data for you to cogitate on and perhaps relate the reserve of unemployed to it.

The federal government has made some futile efforts to rectify the fatal flaw but the private sector has done absolutely nothing. As a result, we have this distinct long-term trend of unemployment for teenagers. Now, I'm certain that there are some exceptions to that general statement about the private sector, but in the overall, if we start listing the exceptions, I think we could do it on two or three pages of 8-by-11 paper.

As a result of this ignoring, or cursory treatment, of the problem, we have now a series of very frightening things that have emerged since the 1950s. As you well know, the gap between teenage unemployment and adult unemployment in the black community has only slightly widened. However, the gap between the black and white rates of adult unemployment has widened steadily. Even more frightening is the gap between black and white teenage unemployment. Even during a high point in the cycles, we have not at all diminished black, Hispanic, disadvantaged teenage employment. We should also know, as I think we do, that the rate that is frequently quoted, 36.4 percent unemployment, is grossly understated. When we talk about an unemployed person, we talk about a person who is 16 years old, without a job and available and looking for work. I think that's the Labor Department definition. Taking into account all of the undercounting that's done by the Department of Labor and by the Census Bureau, we could say that there are at least a million teenagers who fit into that category.

Youth unemployment accounts for 20 percent of the total number of unemployed but only 10 percent of the total labor force. Now, if you would broaden the definition of youth to include 16 through 24 years of age, youth account for more than 50 percent of the total unemployment, while measuring only 25 percent of the labor force.

The basic causes of teenage unemployment are well known to you: inadequate schools and training, the entire system that encourages the use of capital as a substitution for employment and growth potential, discrimination in the labor market--but no one wants to talk about that. The assumption is that America has solved its racial problems and really there is no more discrimination. That assumption is a fallacious one. I submit to you that, without discrimination, it is impossible for America to have created a million new jobs last year in the private sector and not have dented black unemployment. The problem arises not so much in terms of inadequate training, not so much in terms of inadequate experience, but it arises at that hiring gate where racism and discrimination dominate, and this is especially true if the job seeker has a record. This becomes another justification added on to racism for the exclusion of that person.

I will share with you that the first full-time job after leaving school is especially critical. If that job is not obtained within a reasonable period of time, you begin to establish the basis for the permanently discouraged worker. I do not fear so much the armament of the Soviet Union, or Cuba, or China. This government is not going to be overthrown by any external force. If it is overthrown at all, if it falls, if it decays, if it withers, if it dies, it's going to be because of forces within this nation, the forces of frustration, the forces of alienation, and the forces that create despair in human beings.

The first full-time job after leaving school is so critical, and to some extent the summer youth program took up a part of that slack, giving experience on a first full-time job. That's why I cannot understand the temerity of President Carter in cutting summer youth jobs. I worked very hard as a member of the Budget Committee. My amendment passed to move the number up so that we had a million summer youth jobs, and our President, in his august wisdom, has decided that in the name of approaching a balanced budget we are going to once again sacrifice youths by cutting out a quarter of a million summer youth jobs. That is arrogant nonsense, and I am prepared this morning to go to war with all means possible to rectify that situation.

To address the problem of inadequate training, I would suggest that we again look to the private sector. I think we have the power to make it mandatory that the private sector, which received enormous job contracts, be given some kind of incentive, or be required by law, to employ some of the hard-core disadvantaged youth. I find it incomprehensible for example, that Boeing, and Lockheed, and General Electric received a combined $11 billion in government contracts last year, but were under no mandate at all to employ the disadvantaged. I think the President has the authority to issue a procurement directive stating that all contracts over $500,000 must contain a teenage employment and training component. This would ensure that the teenager or the youth would receive on-the-job training and it would facilitate the entry of such persons into the economy.

Along with this, obviously there has got to be an increase in comprehensive vocational educational efforts. Even in our public schools, despite the Brown decision in 1954, there is still a great disparity in vocational training. I cite by way of illustration my own city of Baltimore, where we have the Carver Vocational School, and the Merganthol Vocational School, both of which teach electricity. Carver is primarily black Merganthol is primarily white. At Carver the electricity courses consist of house wiring. At Merganthol, the primarily white school, the courses consist of high-tension wiring. There's a market for high-tension wiring. There is no market for house wiring. We have our own do-it-yourself kits to accomplish that.

We also need to look at the tax policies. They have not been used to facilitate the employment of blacks and other youth. It's no secret that our large corporations write off billions of dollars every year. I would suggest that we have some kind of federal effort to encourage employment tax credits. That would have to be looked at very carefully because I don't want to see the government subsidizing, in effect, a form of slave labor or exploitation of people, but it is something that we should concern ourselves with.

The most difficult thing that we have to deal with in our problem of youth unemployment, it seems to me, is a constellation of attitudes that come together and create what is essentially apathy. I don't blame young people for being apathetic. I don't blame them for saying, "There is no way that I can win in this system," becuase they look at their fathers who have been unemployed for the past five years if they are black or Hispanic, and they say, "If Dad can't win, I can't win." Not blaming them is one thing. Doing something about it is another.

I would urge that each training program for young people contain a vital component on political education. I know that speaks of harassing and I know that someone is going to suggest that that is political empire-building on the part of those who want programs. It certainly could be, but it should not be. What I am suggesting is the kind of political education that lets young people know that black youth unemployment and Hispanic youth unemployment are going to remain unaddressed until they become a political force in this country, and that is by using the ballot.

Finally--and this statement always gets me in trouble--everything that lives has a tolerance level for frustration. What that level is, I don't know, but everything that lives and breathes has a tolerance level for frustration, and I think black youth and Hispanic youth, and their adults who are unemployed, have a tolerance level for frustration. My argument is, are we going to move before that tolerance level for frustration breaks and we have a series of untoward incidents occurring in America? Are we going to wait until that happens and then come in with a whole state of Band-Aid programs, or are we going to seize this moment to address the dysfunctions in the American economic system and make life a little better for these neglected people?

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: Thank you, Congressman Mitchell.

It's not often that a panel of private citizens gets to play a reverse role here, and since we have Congressman Mitchell with us, I would like for him to take some time and respond, if he will, to questions that panel members might like to ask him.

MR. DELGADO: Congressman Mitchell, for the record, where would you place the degree of accountability for the things that are happening with the nation's youth today?

MR. MITCHELL: I would divide it up over three categories of forces. Obviously I think the federal government, as a result of the Nixon-Ford years, developed an indifference, a lack of sensitivity, indeed a callousness toward blacks and minorities, and as a result of that, we have this very high rate of black youth and Hispanic youth unemployment. It is hard to trace when this began, but it seems to me it began with an Irish gentleman who mouthed the phrase "benign neglect." And then there were a whole series of steps that developed around that, culminating with the re-election of Mr. Nixon on the basis of a cue kind of campaign in which he implicitly suggested that most of America's problems were traceable to minorities, particularly blacks.

A second component has been the unwillingness of youth and the minorities to use the political clout that we have. Almost every senior-citizen bill that gets into the House gets passed. The Gray Panthers have organized. They vote. Suppose 80 percent of all minority youth at age 18 voted? That is an impact that could not be ignored.

The third area of responsibility, it seems to me, is with the private sector, and I recognize the importance of the private sector. I recognize the importance of the free-enterprise system, but I submit that there has been no social consciousness in the private sector since the time our cities burned in America. When they stopped burning, then the social consciousness evaporated. That lack of social consciousness is tied to certainly the matter of the ledger psychosis--profits. Why should I--Mr. Private Sector Man--concern myself about youth unemployment when last year I was able to pass on to my stockholders the largest profits ever in history?

MR. BOONE: A number of labor economists are suggesting that we may have some excruciating skilled-labor shortages in the '80s, which suggests the tremendous need to help train young people to meet the job requirements and to take advantage of the projected job opportunities of the '80s.

Yet there is a very serious problem of a bottleneck around apprenticeships system, particularly for black and brown young people. If work/education combinations are important (particularly in vocational education), and if vocational education becomes a vital step toward apprenticeships, and if there is an extremely serious bottleneck in providing apprenticeship opportunities for a number of our highly disadvantaged young people, what might be the opportunities and responsibilities for the Congress to address that issue?

MR. MITCHELL: The responsibilities are there and they are enormous. It is no great secret that we have not broken into the building trades. Most of the skilled crafts are not black and Hispanic. What I would like to do, if I had the power, is to mandate that the private sector employ, as 10 percent of its work force, hard-core unemployed youth if it wants to qualify for any government contracts. Now, that's tough, but I think the situation demands toughness.

I do want to comment just briefly on the matter of career building by saying that I would hope that in our vocational work training we are looking way off into the future. There is going to be a market for trained people in solar energy, for trained people as we attempt to extract energy from the ocean's depths, and all the subsidiary products that go along with solar experimentation. I think that needs to be incorporated into our vocational training programs. Having said that, I want to close out my answer to your questions by saying don't put all your marbles on that. I remember that during World War II we needed skilled workers, didn't we? We got them overnight--people from the hills of North Carolina, from the swamps of Louisiana, people with manure still on their flesh because they didn't have shoes, but we needed them and we brought them in overnight and made them into skilled workers, because there was a national emergency. I think this is a national emergency in terms of a time bomb.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: We thank Congressman Mitchell for his powerful, moving and right-on remarks.

We understand that Assistant Secretary Ernest Green has a tight schedule, so we will hear from him next.

ERNEST GREEN, ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF

LABOR FOR EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING

MR. GREEN: Thank you, Mr. Chairman. As you are well aware, the Youth Employment and Demonstrations Act made available some $1 billion to be spent for youth employment and training programs. It is anticipated that in 1980 under the new budget proposal slightly under $1 billion will be expended under YEDPA.

Congressman Mitchell has indicated the unemployment figures, particularly for black teenagers, are still dismally high, but if we look at the figures from the end of 1976 to now, there has been nearly a 6 percentage point decrease, 38.4 down to 32.7. Clearly, the 2-for-1 differential that exists between blacks and whites has been a problem that our government has been unable to wrestle with over the last 20 years. Youth participation, though, among blacks and among youth in general, has increased, and we attribute a great deal of this increase to the drawing of the programs.

The youth programs administered by the Labor Department have, I think, accounted for the bulk of the increase into the work force of black youth. Over half of all employment for black teenagers was due to this effort. The new programs have also resulted in some qualitative achievements. Many of you are aware that in the inception of CETA, the dysfunctional connection between employment and training was rampant in most communities. We are able to point out that under the legislative initiatives of the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act, over half of those funds go now between the local prime sponsors' employment efforts and the local educational authorities. This growing partnership has succeeded in bringing more economically disadvantaged students into the mainstream of ongoing programs. In fact, one of the policy issues that in your deliberations today--as you are well aware, the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act was passed by Congress with a two-year life. We will very shortly, within the Administration and the Congress, debate the issue of further youth activity, youth employment activity. I am particularly interested in your efforts today to look at the hard-to-employ youth.

The policy questions that we have in front of us are who to serve, how well to serve them, what mix of program aspects young people need, why young people tend not to be where the jobs are.

Another issue is the Summer Program for Economically Disadvantaged Youth, SPEDY. It has been around with us for over ten years. There is great concern in many local areas about part-time summer employment. I think that Youthwork and the other intermediary organizations have to look very carefully at it. We have had many complaints from participants as well as local officials as to whether this best serves the young people. In fact, last year under SPEDY, of the allocation that went out, it was undersubscribed. We budgeted roughtly a million participants and had somewhere around 900,000. You have, I think, an excellent opportunity to assist this Administration and the Congress in attempting to make sense of the next round of youth program activity. I am convinced that the initiatives that we began to strike on our CETA program in general have an impact on this. As you are well aware, under the tax law last year, an amendment targeted jobs through a tax credit. One of the populations to receive the targeted jobs tax credit is disadvantaged young people between the ages of 18 and 24.

Part of the problem we have is how well we can draw the private sector into participation in our youth programs. We have to have a greater private-sector connection. If you look at the list of witnesses that are testifying today, I think you will find few, if any, are representing the private sector and corporate America. We do have, I think, an opportunity to have an impact on this.

I will now answer questions.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: I would like for you to briefly comment on what sort of initiatives are being taken by the Department of Labor to deal with the specialized problems of rural youth in this country.

MR. GREEN: As you are well aware, the youth employment funds are distributed by formula. I think that in analyzing the formula, though, one of the things that happened under the new CETA legislation is that a significant amount of money was shifted to nonurban areas, went from north to south.

Now, the question that we have is how well does that money work? In one project, for example, in Greene County, Alabama, there was a linkage involving the Board of Education for the county and providing employment opportunities for some 600 young people, but the jobs didn't get developed. The other thing that we are encountering in this change of allocation from urban to nonurban areas is a lack of infrastructure to operate either projects or the expansion. But if you look at solely the allocation of funds, and if you look at the prime sponsor arrangement, we have a significant amount of money at this time in nonurban areas, and our problems I think, on a collective basis is to put into place operational infrastructures that allow rural kids to benefit from program activity as well as urban youngsters.

MS. MICHEL: In addition to that, Mr. Chairman, we have one of the largest pots of discretionary money under the YEDPA legislation, some $95 million, and we have tried to ensure with those research and demonstration projects that there have been specific projects for rural youth. For example, we have strengthened our agency agreement with HUD that will place some $8 million into housing projects that rural young people will work on. We are developing a rural project in upstate New York that deals with volunteerism. I must admit that we do not have as many dollars, obviously, in rural projects as in urban projects, but we do have some and I would be happy to provide that list to you.

MR. GREEN: I might add that one of the issues of policy is where the problem is and who should be served and rural versus urban. One of the issues that we have had continually, at least in my two years here in the Department, was CETA in general, and we were able to get the Congress to come down hard on the question of who should be served this time, but the substitution has been as much of a problem in rural areas as it has been in urban areas. Who should be served is a fact of need and that's one of the things that as we wrestle with the legislation will be an important item.

MS. FRANCO: Mr. Green, you make reference to the fact that there is a trend toward service job creation as opposed to manufacturing job creation. Yet, so many of the tax incentives we have used to date seem more appropriate for a larger manufacturing industry. What kinds of initiatives is the Labor Department considering to affect the small businesses in the service sector where jobs are growing so that we get hard-to-employ young people into those jobs?

MR. GREEN: Historically, large manufacturing firms don't participate very much, or have not, in on-the-job training and assistance activities. One of the things we are trying to effect through the Title VII private sector initiative is to look more at small-sized firms. The same thing with the targeted job tax credit. What we believe, if the expansion of the assistance activity, either targeted tax credit or improved OJT institutional training, activity will occur with the small-sized firms, and that's part of our effort to direct that. We are working with a series of small-business representatives. Part of the effort is a combination of program linkages through the Small Business Administration, which has been mainly an assist to the small- and medium-sized firms and to involve them. Of the other initiatives that we've gotten--and we do have some private-sector initiatives going under the Youth and Demonstration Projects Act, both through the discretionary money as well as the formula money--the bulk are directed at service entities.

MR. DELGADO: This concerns the people that are in migrant streams throughout the country who can't even begin to reach the first rung of the career ladder and whose life conditions are deplorable. What, if anything, is being done by the Department of Labor to address this issue?

MR. GREEN: There is an entitlement program built into the specified level of funding for migrant seasonal farm workers that the Department runs as program initiatives. On special youth efforts we do have undiscretionary activity, and the Health Camp program is one of the things we're doing in the area of the migrant stream. I suppose the biggest problem that we have is one of improving opportunities for young people who want to leave migrant activity and move into the permanent work force outside of that we are making that bridge, but we have not done it very well.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: Thank you, Assistant Secretary Green. We will now hear from Daphne Busby for another perspective on youth unemployment.

DAPHNE BUSBY, DIRECTOR, SISTERHOOD OF BLACK SINGLE MOTHERS, BROOKLYN, NEW YORK, ACCOMPANIED BY RENEE GRAVES AND VERONICA GIBBS

MS. BUSBY: I think it is important to have youth represented at this forum. So, with me I have brought two of the young teenage participants in our teenage mothers program and I am going to share my time with them so that they can express from their own perspective and their own points of view what their feelings are about not only the issue of education and employment but also their lifestyle as teenage parents and what their concerns are.

I want to emphasize one point while we are talking about employment and education: the importance of family. If you're going to try to initiate programs that are going to be helpful, that are going to be an incentive for our young people to motivate themselves towards higher goals, then we are going to have to start at the beginning, which is in the family home life. Single parents and black single mothers at this point are at the bottom of our economic scale, and very often the need for their children to be involved in gainful and positive employment is not only good for the child's own development but also very often serves as a significant part of that household's functioning and survival.

What we have seen too often is young people who have become discouraged, not only from their frustration at not being able to find employment, but also from what that household is struggling with and seeing their inability to help that situation.

I would like to briefly give you some information about the Sisterhood so that you can better understand where my feelings are coming from. Five years ago the organization started as a result of many of my friends and I knowing that there was a strength, there was a lot of creativity, and there were a lot of positive energies in women who are raising their families alone to do positive things and make some changes themselves. For so long the single mother had been looked upon as a pathological individual who had no real control over her own lifestyle or what would happen with her and her children, and we knew that to be not true. Unfortunately, media have assisted in this distorted impression by picturing her only in the negative context as the welfare mother who has no heat and whose son goes around mugging people. These are the images that have been created for our children. So, when talking about employment and education, we have to really get back and ask what kind of attitudes our children are feeling about themselves. Are they going to be motivated to deal with the disappointments when they venture out to look for those jobs that may not be there? And what kind of situation are they going to find when they come back into the home and say, "Ma, I went to this job and it wasn't there; I didn't have the right skills?" How is she, with her own struggle, going to be able to relate to that? Can she understand the significance of encouraging that kid even though she may be discouraged in her own struggle? What our organization does is try to call to our members' attention the need for not only getting ourselves together, as the term goes, but also to isolate our own struggle from what we have to be for our children. That is crucial.

Since June, we have been engaged in a program, which we developed ourselves, for teenage mothers. It is called Sister-to-Sister. We know that if you don't have a kind of respect and good feeling about yourself, if you don't have enough self-esteem to say, "I know I can do it," it is impossible to go out and take advantage of that job that is waiting there for you. This is the kind of motivating thing that we serve for each other. We wanted to share that with teenage mothers who may not have the kind of family support that is going to instill those kinds of feelings in them.

What this program does is to match a teenage mother with an older, single mother whose lifestyle exemplifies the positive things we are talking about, and someone whom she can communicate with, ask questions of, talk to when things are bad, and even though she may have family, if she's living at home with her family, sometimes it's not always easy to talk to your family about some of the things that you need to talk about. So, we try to help that communication with the family situation also.

One of the significant aspects of this program is its mandatory educational component. We emphasize that because we know that if you're not able to show some kind of skills for that job, you won't get it. We are trying to instill in the girls the fact that learning job skills is extremely, extremely important.

The biggest problem that teenage mothers have is day care. Very often you may be very ambitious but you have a baby and everyone tells you that you are responsible for your baby, and you know that's true. However, you also have to prepare yourself to be able to take care of the child in years to come, and therefore you have to acquire some kind of skill. So, here you are in a dilemma. You have no money to pay a babysitter so that you can go out and go to school or go out and get a job, and yet everyone is enforcing those two things as mandatory situations, and you become very frustrated. What we did in this program was to build in a day-care feature. This program, incidentally, is funded by the Ford Foundation. There is a $25-a-week stipend for the babysitter, which we help the girls in selecting so that they understand the criteria for a good babysitter. If they are going to school when they come to us, that's fine. Many of these girls have been out of school for a few years because of their situation, and we help them find a school, be it their regular school or a special GED program. On whatever level they come to us, we help them get into some kind of meaningful education or employment component.

What we have accomplished within this program is actually see the girls who are able to go back to school and be assured that there is someone definite to take care of the baby, knowing that this is quality care. They can go to school confident there will be no question of coming back tomorrow and learning that they have no one to care for the baby. It is a consistent kind of thing. We are proud that several of our girls will be graduating in June because of our program.

I think it important to mention young fathers. When you have reached so many areas of frustration in looking for a job when you're a young man, and you are trying to get your identity as that--a young man--and continuously being told that you don't quite make it in terms of what your skills are, or maybe some small criteria that you don't quite fit, then you have to reassert yourself in other ways. Very often we have heard young men say that they feel very good now--they have a baby. They have proven something positive, and unfortunately, once that happens, other people begin to say, "Okay, now get a job and take care of it." So, once again, there is the reality. You have a baby now but you can't even support it. The young man's family puts pressure on him, and the girl's family puts pressure on him, and it just mounts up. I think we don't have to be surprised at seeing our jails overflowing with some of the repercussions of that.

Teenage parents should be encouraged to complete their education--but being encouraged is not enough. Once the inspiration is there, we have to have something practical to show them that they can really get into it. It's ironic. We're telling them to go to school, take care of their baby and be independent and not to depend on welfare, but we're not making it at all practical in terms of how to go about doing that. We're playing games with the only few possibilities that they have to actually make a change in their lives.

I think it's a priority to have an increase in schools for pregnant students. Something has to meet that need; otherwise we're paying lip service to all the rest of this.

Many of the kids say they have to go to a program to apply for a job they hear about and the job may be earmarked for kids who have had altercations with the law. They have never had an altercation with the law. Very often they will create something. One young lady told us that she went to apply for a job and they had a job there but she would have to have been an abuser of some type of drug in her history to qualify for the program. So she said she had smoked pot a lot, when, in fact, she had never smoked pot. But she needed it. She had a baby at home. These are real things we're talking about. This is not fantasy.

We are trying to do the part of encouraging the parents to encourage their young people. This is the Sisterhood's responsibility. Instead of saying, "We are struggling," we are saying, "We are struggling but we also are going to instill in our kids some positive qualities." In the meantime, though, once we've done that, once we've prepared them to venture out for the job, there has to be something there for them to venture out to, and that's where other people--policymakers, and proposal writers, and other people who are in position to make things happen--that's where they fit in.

I'm going to just briefly turn it over to some of the girls, Renee Graves and Veronica Gibbs, who are going to speak to you very briefly.

MS. GIBBS: My name is Veronica Gibbs. I'm from the Sister-to-Sister project, and I have a press release here I would like to read. It's telling about the problems us teenage mothers go through.

"On the morning of January 24, 1974, a teenage high school student who delivered her baby in early December was arrested on her way to school in the IRT Subway. The charge: stealing a transportation pass. According to the arresting officer, he did not believe the young mother was going to school with her baby. Because earlier attempts to find and pay for a babysitter through the New York City Department of Social Service had failed, the student mother was told by the project staff to bring her baby to school while she took her citywide exams. A later review of the state regulations by the State Commission of Social Service revealed that indeed a high school student could receive public funds for babysitting while going to class. The local welfare center had told her she must drop out of school and register in a vocational training program to receive a child-care stipend. The arrest on January 24, 1979, is not the first time a teenage student has been detained for traveling on a school pass with her baby. Teachers who have worked at the school for years stated, 'Even when pregnant, girls are left at bus stops because drivers don't believe passes are issued to pregnant students.' Fortuantely, this student was able to contact her lawyer, who expedited her release from central booking, but the emotional trauma and stress to a motivated young woman cannot be overlooked, ignored or forgotten.

"Today an alarming number of young people are conceiving and bearing children. It is recognized at federal and state levels that the growing incidence of adolescent parenthood requires comprehensive and supportive approaches to motivate, educate and employ young parents. A lot of these stated concerns by government agencies, the staff at Project Teenage, and teenage high schools is impelled by the insensitivity of some civil servants who repeatedly thwart attempts to develop positive and progressive lifestyles for two generations of young people. Today's infants and their adolescent parents are here and they are the future. Schools for pregnant students should not be phased out as suggested by Mayor Koch in a recent New York Times article. Instead, the concept should be extended to include special education, training and job placement for young parents as well as for pregnant students."

This article I did not write, even though it is a press release from one of the Sisterhood Sister-to-Sister projects, but this is referring to the problems that some young teenage mothers have, and I really think we should have a child-care center. There are some mothers out here who want to do something and try to make things better. They should open up a day-care center and keep the kids for the young mothers while they go to school and work. They should have jobs for young mothers also. That's all I can express.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: Thank you.

MS. GRAVES: Good afternoon. My name is Renee Graves, and I am from the Sister-to-Sister Project. I want to speak on the topic about education and employment, and a few things that I have experienced in my own day-to-day life. One of the topics that I would like to talk about is the after-school occupational skills for teenagers who want to continue their education and for teenage mothers who want to continue their education and learn different occupational skills so that they can learn different things to get out into the world to find a job and at the same time maybe have a day-care center so that they would have someone to take care of their child reliably.

MS. MARTIN: What kind of job do you have and how did you get it?

MS. GRAVES: Right now I am not working, but I am attending high school and will graduate in June, but right now I do not have a job.

I would also like to talk about more schools for pregnant teenagers, which I attended when I was pregnant. I really think that there should be more high schools for teenage pregnant mothers who want to continue their education.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: Are you currently enrolled in a program?

MS. GRAVES: No, I'm not, but I was when I was pregnant. Right now I have my baby and he's nine months now.

MS. BUSBY: As Renee stated previously, she is graduating from high school. I just have to share this with you. By Renee being in a program that Sisterhood is sponsoring, she broght her report card to the office, which is part of us keeping track of how things are going with the girls and giving them whatever assistance they need, and she had gotten a commendation, in addition to very good grades, for being the best in her class with a 95 percent average in that particular class. It's ironic, knowing Renee's background, that the class was teenage problems that she got the 95 percent in. That is sort of an indication, because she is an example of the kind of strength that many of the young girls do have in terms of having not necessarily the kind of family situation that would be supportive of that, but her own determination and her own inspiration and what she's already made as her goals are consistent, and I think that's important. If there weren't some possibility of her going to school and having someone to take care of her baby, all of that would have been a dream instead of a reality.

So, when you asked if she was in a program, she wasn't in a special program because now she is in regular high school and will graduate in June.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: We are going to hold questions until we have heard all of the panelists. I would like to thank you for your presentation. At this time we would like to hear from Dr. Frank Furstenberg.

FRANK FURSTENBERG, PROFESSOR OF SOCIOLOGY,

UNIVERISTY OF PENNSYLVANIA

DR. FURSTENBERG: We would not be too far wrong if we were to guess that as many as half of all economically disadvantaged black women have a pregnancy before their 20th birthday. Most of these women, by choice or by necessity, will bring these pregnancies to term and also all who have child will elect to raise the baby themselves, usually with the assistance of other family members. There is much evidence that teenagers who have children are socially and economically handicapped in later life, over and above the disadvantage that accrues from their social background or personal characteristics.

From 1967 to 1972 I followed a group of some 400 adolescent mothers from the time of their pregnancy to the period when their children were entering the school system. The young women I studied were from inner-city neighborhoods in Baltimore. Almost all were black and the great majority were poor. During the same period, I traced the careers of a sample of the former classmates of the young mothers, who for the most part came from similar backgrounds and grew up in identical neighborhoods.

The verdict is all too clear. Adolescent mothers have a much lower chance of completing high school, finding stable employment, getting a job that pays well than do their classmates. At the five-year follow-up, 56 percent of the young mothers were working or in school full-time as compared with 71 percent of their classmates. Thirty-five percent of the early childbearers were receiving a substantial amount of economic support from public assistance, as compared with only 4 percent of their classmates who did not become pregnant during adolescence. I think it is important to reflect on these figures because they do show marked differences between those life changes and the situation of early childbearers and later childbearers, but they also suggest that many early childbearers are returning to school and are finding employment, as the testimony indicated so far. They also indicate that the popular stereotype that all adolescents have children to get on welfare is certainly not true, though the chances of getting on public assistance are much greater if an early birth occurs.

Two other long-term follow-ups show a similar pattern of detriment to the careers of men who fathered children early in life. Contrasted to more mature fathers, they have a much lower chance of holding a high-paying or skilled job and are at greater risk of being unemployed. The direct effects of economic disadvantage are severe enough, but we must also reckon the indirect costs for family functioning as well as the personal well-being of the parents and children. My data from Baltimore shows a strong relationship between the employment situation of young parents and the likelihood of their decision to marry and to maintain a stable relationship. Stable employment was virtually a prerequisite for a stable marriage.

But instability and marital break-up are not isolated effects. They in turn have ramifications to the development of the offspring. For example, the economically successful women in my study had more successful children. On a standard test of cognitive achievement, the offspring of employed women scored significantly higher than the children of women who did not work.

The problems of early parenthood cannot be solved merely by providing employment opportunities for premature parents, but there is little doubt that an effective program of job creation and job placement would mitigate some of the most injurious effects of unplanned parenthood.

Let us consider a few of the dilemmas in creating such a program of employment. First, should we lend assistance to the young mother, who must bear the economic brunt of the pregnancy, or to the young father, who might be prepared to lend a hand if he were in a position to do so? We should not be forced to make this choice. We must be prepared to provide job assistance to both parents if we want them to corroborate in raising the child.

A second problem is that most adolescent parents--and we have heard some already about this this morning--do not possess the qualifications to settle into a stable position. Combined educational and vocational assistance is the desired route for most teenage parents, particularly if they have not completed high school. Many, of course, have not. The women in my study for the most part were unequivocal about their

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desire to graduate from high school. Thus a program that dovetails employment with schooling is likely to be favored by the teenage parents. We have already heard some support for that.

No employment program will have great success unless it is coordinated with day-care services.

Employment situations may have to be clustered so that day-care facilities are provided at the work site. Otherwise, allowances should be available to pay friends or relatives for child care, as in the program described. Alternatively, part-time positions may be required to meet the special needs of the adolescent mother.

Finally, a program of job assistance must take into account the situation of the adolescent parents' extended family. Frequently, the young mother remains in her home and relies on her parents, siblings, or other close relatives for assistance. Jobs must be situated to permit this pattern to continue or many women will withdraw from the labor market.

In the final chapter of my book on planned parenthood, I wrote that no measure would be more potent in altering the future prospects of the teenage parent than job placement. At the same time I could not feel very sanguine about our current commitment providing productive positions for these disadvantaged youths. I endorse Youthwork for determination to reverse a policy that is morally and socially retrogressive as well as economincally wasteful.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: Thank you, Dr. Furstenberg.

At this time we will hear from Joseph Cooper.

JOSEPH COOPER, RESEARCH ECONOMIST,

NATIONAL BUREAU OF ECONOMIC RESEARCH

CAMBRIDGE, MASSACHUSETTS

MR. COOPER: Good morning. My name is Joseph Cooper. I am a research economist at the National Bureau of Economic Research in Cambridge, Massachusetts. I am also a student at the Harvard Law School.

Our researchers are currently trying to quantify with precision the real economic consequences of joblessness. We have little information concerning programs and policies that might serve to reduce the unemployment rate among these youngsters. Although work experience while in high school seems to be correlated with post-employment earnings, further research needs to be conducted to determine the types of work experience most successful in decreasing the amount of joblessness.

To get a further grasp on some of the issues, Richard B. Freeman, Professor of Labor Economics at Harvard, and I tried to devise a method to collect some rather detailed information on four crucial issues.

First, what black teenagers do during the day if they are not working. How do they allocate their time among the various activities?

Second, how do youths finance this spell of unemployment? Do they have jobs that they are not really telling us about? Do they get their money from crime or do they rely primarily upon their parents?

Third, what are their previous work experiences? What type of jobs were they taking? Have they been satisfied with these jobs?

Fourth, what are their career aspirations?

During the month of August, I conducted formal interviews with roughly two dozen black teenagers aged 16 through 19. In addition I chatted informally with 50 blacks from the age of 16 through 24 to gain a quick, and what I believe to be an accurate picture of the unemployment problems confronting these youngsters.

Since the study was too small to draw meaningful essence from the data collected, and since any means of standard deviations reducing the data cannot be generalized in the entire population of black teenagers because a random-sampling technique was not used, our report had very rough percentages and subjective impressions rather than higher statistics.

My interviews revealed, however,that a rather consistent set of characteristics described the problems of these youngsters. Typically they had only received an eighth-grade education or less (80 percent) and they did not plan to return to school in the fall (half).

Most respondents cited a strong need for improvements in their grade school and high school English programs, and about an equal percentage of youths, 60 percent, reported some difficulty comprehending any instruction on their job application forms.

This difficulty seemed limited, however, to written communications only. Most of the respondents reported that getting high on marijuana and hanging out were the two activities that occupied most of their time during the day. The general remainder said they did such activities as staying home and watching television, talking with friends, standing on the street corner watching the traffic, or simply sitting outside on the porch.

More than half of the youngsters interviewed said that they had engaged in illegal activity during the course of the survey week. These youths sold marijuana frequently and some reported robbery, pickpocketing, burglary, and breaking and entering took up most of their time the week prior to the survey week.

All of the teenagers wanted a full-time permanent job. Almost all said that they had searched for a job within the last four weeks and had been unable to secure one. The lowest wage paid was $40 per week for a full-time job, the highest $150.

Now, by reservation wage, I mean the minimum wage that a person would need to have in order for him to take that job; the reservation wages reported by most of these youngsters may not reflect the true minimum rock-bottom asking wage.

I asked most of the youngsters if they would refuse a job that fell below this rock-bottom wage, and a substantial number said no.

Most of the respondents said they had worked at least one job for wages during last year. Although they preferred full-time permanent work, most had to settle for part-time jobs that lasted less than four weeks. Of the respondents who said that they had worked during last year, it would be fair to characterize their jobs as unskilled and low paying. Most found their job by themselves.

Part-time work in crime constituted the main source of income for these youngsters. Of the 55 percent who said they had engaged in some sort of illegal activity during the course of the survey week, the average income exceeded $100. Yet many of these lawbreakers said that they would give up their criminal activities if they had a job that paid at least the reservation wage.

The career plans for most of these youngsters were sketchy. Most of the men said that they would probably enlist in the armed services during the next five years, while the women for the most part were uncertain.

This summer we at the National Bureau of Economics Research plan to conduct a more comprehensive and random survey of youth. We also plan to interview employers to see what their attitude is. We also are going to analyze detailed census fact information and classify an inventory of programs for the Boston metropolitan statistical area and for the city itself. Such a detailed analysis of the youth employment situation in Boston should be of great concern to those interested in the problems of teenage unemployment.

First, the survey data will provide information on the skills, aspirations, and activities of the disadvantaged youth who are hardest hit by joblessness. Such knowledge of the affected group is needed to devise policies to aid youth.

If--take one possibility--we find that nonemployed youths are able to make reasonable earnings from "street activity" or crime and are uninterested in various programs designed to provide legitimate work, then standard jobs programs are unlikely to resolve the problem.

If we find, on the other hand, that many nonemployed youths are basically illiterate or lacking in work skills, attention will be focused on those policies to alleviate those problems.

One part of our work will involve comparisons of youth with some successful employment experiences with those with less successful experience. By identifying the characteristics of the young who escape the joblessness, we hope to determine what has worked for some and what may be used to help others.

Second, our survey of youths will determine whether those suffering from joblessness have been affected by any assistance programs, and if so in what ways. If it turns out that few hard-core youths not employed have not heard of, much less been aided by, any assistance programs, the need for new approaches will be identified.

If alternatively we find that youths going through some of the program have benefited greatly or that any particular jobs were acceptable for this package, those mechanisms deserve expansion.

Third, our discussions with employers on the inventory of programs will provide an important input into evaluation of policies and of means in which employers can aid in remedying the youth unemployment problem.

We will seek to discover from employers what characteristics led them to choose to employ or not to employ the young persons, which should help identify the problem areas for specific groups. As an analysis of youth we will seek to determine which programs or employer policies have been relatively successful in alleviating youth joblessness and which can be expended or exported.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: At this time, we would like to hear from Antonia Pantoja.

ANTONIA PANTOJA, PRESIDENT,

GRADUATE SCHOOL FOR URBAN RESOURCES AND SOCIAL

POLICY,

SAN DIEGO, CALIFORNIA.

DR. PANTOJA: Good morning. Listening to the presentations that have been delivered so far, I decided to switch the manner in which I will deliver my remarks to you. What I am going to present to you is completely out of the traditional picture and the way of looking at this situation of unemployment of young people.

In San Diego, where I live, there are what you keep on calling "Hispanics" or "Latinos" (I would say "Chicanos," "Puerto Ricans") and other people of Hispanic background--the poor, I mean. The other groups that would concern us here are blacks, and the third largest minority population in San Diego, Filipinos. In addition, there are native Americans and the group that has taken the coast-to-coast trip and has ended on the beaches of San Diego. Those are the social drop-outs.

Now, with that as a background, I will tell you some things about my model. I am saying that if Youthwork has the opportunity of doing some things that are different, significantly different, then God-speed in doing them. I find that the same things I was saying about the problems of Puerto Rican youth in New York back in 1957 are just as true today.

So I decided I would use my knowledge of model-gating, and I will present to you what is the matter with what we are doing. What is wrong with what we are doing is that the model, to analyze the problem, has a number of flaws.

I have passed out to each of you an aid called "Prevailing Traditional Analysis." If we take this model and we analyze what the problem is as defined, we find that we are saying that the problem is the unemployment of youth. Once you define the problem then everything follows from there. You will find that the data subsequently collected will be defined by the fact that we defined the problem as youth unemployment.

In the traditional model, the educational system and manpower training institution can and want to educate and train youths for work in the nation's needs. Jobs exist and are produced by the economy where the unemployed youth can be trained and employed. The knowledge gathered is based on the values and assumptions selected.

Requirements for the use of funds are tied to youths staying or returning to school. Plus the schools are devoted to training and educating youth. High schools and community colleges are seduced with money to become training grounds. Community-based institutions and neighborhood groups lose control of their youth because the service that they are receiving are standardized and centralized to serve large numbers of people.

You have got to come packaged in a certain way to receive the service. The nation has tried, remember the old Youth Board Against Juvenile Delinquency and Gangs, the President's Committee Against Juvenile Delinquency, the War on Poverty, the Peace Corps, the Great Society, Mother Cities, manpower programs that created a neighborhood corps, Job Corps, and now we are with CETA.

Now, CETA happened to have some of the worst characteristics of all of the other things that we had done before. There were words used in 1971 at the White House Conference on Youth for describing what the people thought should not be the kind of jobs produced. They were saying that the jobs must not be menial, dead-end, or dehumanizing. Those words can be used to describe exactly the kinds of CETA jobs in which the youths are engaged.

Now, in talking about the policies and the programs that come out of such a definition of the problem, we only end with offering training; we forget about the education part of the equation. What are the results? Well, the nation's values are changed. Minorities, poor, women, different youth are not considered deserving. They are designated emotionally disturbed, incorrigible, ineducable, and delinquent.

In a world that is impossible to face I do not blame people who smoke marijuana or those who drink. And then stealing money, you know, let me tell you something. I am 56, so I can tell you this here. When I was in high school I went into a program that used to give you money so that you could go back and forth to high school. I used to use the money for us to eat at home. I worked in a cafeteria. Whenever somebody gave me the exact change, I did not go to the cash register; I put it in my sock. Nobody caught me, so I was not called a delinquent. I needed to do that to survive.

Now commerce, business and industry claim not to be able to afford to cooperate. Youths, once trained, are not employed. Our training and educational programs train in obsolete skills.

Many CETA jobs are like that. They offer no skills. You sit next to the school custodian and shoot the breeze. Of course, then youths reject schools, training, work. I do not blame them. It is too much to take to have your hopes raised, and then when you finish you find the terrible reality hitting you in the face.

The nation's leadership equates 4.5 unemployment with full employment. Now, 4.5 percent unemployment represents, when broken down into actual numbers and categories, predominantly minorities and women, the handicapped and the young. The economy cannot produce enough jobs to employ all the people in the labor force. Only in times of war were we able to have real employment.

That is my little model. Now I am going to use the same model and I am going to present to you a new framework for analysis. I start by saying the following: The problem was wrongly defined. Youth employment is not the problem. It is a symptom of the problem. Now, if you do not identify the problem correctly, you are not going to find any solution.

I say that the problem is the structural arrangements in a society established to the language sources, services and relationships of power to certain populations. Those populations are identified by sex, by race, by culture, by lifestyle. An exmaple of that is youth.

Now when you do that you find that there are other values that you can pull out to be able to then start formulating policy and then assigning monies to implement those policies into programs.

Youths are really adults over a certain age. They should be awarded all requirements and responsibilities that all other adults receive. They are part of society and not in a holding position outside of society. If you do that to them they are going to behave the way they are behaving, and they will continue to do so.

Society has a responsibility to help each young person reach her or his potential. This is synonymous with education. But the educational system is in a crisis. It does not teach. It is obsolete.

I am going to keep on repeating that you must educate to train. But you do not train people in skills that are so obsolete that the demand for them does not exist anymore. For example, I have seen people being trained in high school for the merchant marine. Do you know who gets that training? In New York it is blacks and Puerto Ricans. But there is no longer any demand for merchant mariners.

In my model, economic self-reliance becomes the important consideration, whether it be through existing jobs, self-employment, cooperatives, partnerships, or whatever, to fulfill community-needed services or programs and problems.

Businessmen are encouraged to participate as teachers and employers, but the availability of the program is not tied to their participation. Some do not want to--or cannot--participate. I am telling you they cannot participate because of the nature of the economic system that we have, which is incapable of producing enough jobs, and so somebody must be left out.

A variety of the learning opportunities are made available to youth, which they can select for their education. They are placed in a variety of settings and processes not necessarily in school, not necessarily in community colleges, not necessarily in training programs. Businesses and industry are offered monetary incentives to participate in the educational training of youth. This incentive is realistic in consideration of their services to those busineses who are interested in doing that. I am not claiming that this kind of thing will solve the entire problem, because I think that the problem has deeper roots and cannot be solved by the Department of Labor or by Youthwork, but it will have at least some positive effect. It will reintegrate youth into the communities.

Young people become adults who have lived a number of years, adults who belong in their respective communitites and are participating members who contribute to the community needs and are accepted by the community. These are communities that most businesses have refused to service and so they develop their own services.

Do you remember when taxi cabs did not go into Harlem? Do you know what people did? They resorted to what used to be called gypsy cabs. They were illegal, but they had to be accepted as legal because they fulfilled a need. So when businesses fail us we have to create other ways of servicing our own needs--an alternative economy. Our young people can do that.

I say to you that the use of federal and private dollars for the establishment of new creative models to resolve problems that are both chronic and dangerous to our society is a legitimate expenditure that we had better try. I am posing to you an invitation: Will you help the people in those groups that you call minorities, that we call culturally different, create a new alternative economic system? It is possible.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: Thank you, Antonia Pantoja.

On this panel we have one last presentation, from Dr. Paul Osterman.

DR. PAUL OSTERMAN, PROFESSOR OF ECONOMICS,

BOSTON UNIVERSITY

DR. OSTERMAN: What I am going to do is address this question: If I were Youthwork and I had some $10 million to spend, how would I spend it?

Addressing a question like this is a fairly unpleasant task because it implies establishing priorities. It implies eliminating funding or not emphasizing funding for some groups that are clearly in need of such funding. Nevertheless, my understanding of what you wanted to get at least out of me are some preliminary ways of thinking about that.

What I had to tell you, I guess, is based on research that I have been doing for the past couple of years on youth employment and unemployment. That research consists of both the standard things that economists do--running regression equations and playing with large scales of data--but also the larger number of interviews that I have conducted in the Boston area with kids in both Roxbury, the black community in Boston, and East Boston, the white working class section, and also with firms, about 50 firms that hired these kids in Boston. Finally, I have done research on the basis of a year-long evaluation that I have been conducting of the CETA youth programs in cities and towns of Massachusetts.

The basic facts that I want to get across about youth unemployment are, first, that neither Youthwork nor CETA is going to make a dent in youth unemployment. If we really want to deal with the problem of youth unemployment and employment, the first and obvious thing to do is lower the unemployment rate nationally to boost the economy.

Second, in terms of minority youth, you need a much stronger commitment of affirmative action than anything we see now.

And third, in terms of youth in general, there need to be a number of structural changes in how firms use you, how firms hire you, what the attitudes of firms are toward youth employment.

The only thing that either CETA or Youthwork can accomplish is to reshuffle the shoe. That is to say the macroeconomy will determine how many youth jobs there are in the economy, and what manpower training programs and employment programs can do is simply reshuffle the shoe.

Instead of it being primarily white and middle-class kids who get the available pool of youth jobs, we can try and ensure that kids from other backgrounds can get those jobs. That is one point.

The second point I want to make is that in terms of white youth unemployment, the trend over time is not particularly adverse. White youth unemployment is high now because the overall unemployment rate is high now. When the unemployment rate goes down white youth unemployment goes down.

All of this talk about declining entry jobs, disappearing youth jobs, switches from this sector to that sector do not show up. Over time, white youth have gotten the same share of jobs that they have always gotten, given the national unemployment rate. The trend is adverse for minority youth. What that says to me is that in the large part the problem of minority youth is not a problem of minority youth but of how the economy and the society treat minorities in general.

The third basic point I want to make is that in terms of the aggregate number of youths who are unemployed, a lot of them are in need at best of income maintenance. A lot of them are in school looking for part-time work. A lot of them are unemployed because they are just putting off looking for a job.

When I say that I do not mean to imply that the problem of youth unemployment is not overwhelming. There is a very large number of kids who do need real help.

The problem that both CETA faces and the problem of an organization like Youthwork with a limited budget is to try to identify the groups that really need it and funnel the resources there, giving it to work with a limited amount of financing.

The first step in doing that is to understand that there are some youths that, while it would be nice to help them, do not really need it. For many youths,

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unemployment in early teens does not have long-term adverse consequences in terms of their experience in the labor market later on. Again, for large numbers of youths it does.

What you really want to do is aim for the reshuffling of the shoe for a limited number of days to do the research. To do that in the most economic way I realize that you want to focus on the "A" group versus the "B" groups. One of the things you will have to do is interview an older group--that is to say those aged 18 through 19 or 20 who have high unemployment rates.

There are two reasons I would argue for this focus on older kids. If you pick a group of 100 high school dropouts who are 18, 19 and 20, for example, you are putting your resources into kids who really need help. Simply as a matter of targeting your money most effectively, I would argue for amining toward that group.

The second reason is that my experience with employment training programs is that we have been more successful with older kids. Older kids are more than ready to work with those programs.

The second group I would emphasize is kids who are about to drop out of school for clearly employment-related reasons, and kids whose life circumstances, such as having single parents, clearly put them at much higher risks than the population of that age group as a whole.

Given that you do focus your efforts on those two groups, what would the program look like? You can think of programs as being oriented either toward skill training (teaching kids how to weld), or toward job creation--simply creating a slot. Then you can think of programs aimed at bringing about behavioral change or imparting basic education and basic skills.

I do not claim to be an expert in choosing among these categories of programs, but my sense, from talking to a lot of kids and a lot of program operators, is that more effort should be put into behavioral change, basic education, and basic skills and less effort into the skill training, teaching-a-kid-how-to-weld programs.

A firm will hire a youth who is bright, who knows how to show up for work on time, and teach him or her how to do the job, regardless of their prior skill level. The trick is getting the firm to be willing to hire that person, when it is not willing to hire minority youth, and teaching the kid the basic skills necessary to survive.

Such a program would be long, much longer than most CETA programs. It would be intensive, more intensive than the CETA program. It would be expensive, more expensive per kid than the current CETA program. And it would emphasize at the end placement and follow-up for the kind on the job.

Now, current CETA youth programs do not have these characteristics. Current CETA programs are almost overwhelmingly in-school work experience programs. They are modern versions of Neighborhood Youth Corps.

Now, there are reasons why that is true. First, if CETA programs are administered by prime sponsors, prime sponsors under political pressure at the local level serve a lot of kids, they serve a lot of kids by kind of setting up these relatively cheaper kid programs. If you already know how to operate you have had a long experience in doing it.

Second, prime sponsors are under a lot of political pressure at the local level to fund their money into organizations who have been historically involved with the system. The organizations who have been involved in the system are the ones who have run those kind of in-school work experience programs.

Third, the prime sponsors receive absolutely no kind of daily pressure from the federal government either from the regional offices of the Department of Labor or from Washington. The Department of Labor really does not have any idea what goes on in the field, nor does it have any capacity nor has it demonstrated any capacity to nudge prime sponsors in directions that one might like to see them move in.

For these reasons of politics, economy, and experience, prime sponsors overwhelmingly put their money into these in-school work experience programs, which I would argue is not what you want.

What does this imply for the Youthwork agenda? I would say the following: Rather than simply focus on exemplary programs, Youthwork should try to find a way to leverage its money to change the behavior of prime sponsors. There is simply no way that $10 million of Youthwork money is going to make a difference in the problem. The real problem is at the prime sponsor level. We have had a lot of experience with federal programs trying to leverage behavior through national funds, through incentives, through whatever. I think you should not simply aim for exemplary programs, but you should aim for exemplary prime sponsors. Think seriously about how you change the behavior of the prime sponsor at the local level.

The direction in which you should try to change the behavior of the prime sponsor is the one I have described--namely, older kids out of school and so forth.

Given that you have to make some kind of choice about where you are coming from, I think you need to think very seriously about encouraging institutional change at the local level.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: Thank you, Dr. Osterman.

Joan?

MS. WILLS: While I am not disagreeing with you, Mr. Osterman, I have serious doubt that yours is the correct identification of the problem. We must be very careful about pointing the finger at the prime sponsor being the culprit. I think it goes to a much more fundamental question of how we begin to develop a legitimate kind of behavioral change. How will we help skill training for the jobs we are going to need?

I am not personally convinced that the CETA system can do that, but let us not assume that CETA prime sponsors are at fault.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: Are there any other questions?

MS. FRANCO: I just wondered if you had any suggestions for mechanisms we might employ to attempt to change prime sponsor behavior in a sense that matching programs in the past have not always been terribly successful, but what ideas might you suggest to us?

MR. OSTERMAN: I think the advantage of national programs in target groups is that you can say to a private sponsor: If you identify the target group and you maintain your current effort and increase it to a certain level, we will match that. That is something to think about.

I think fairly to the fact we should issue target groups, but in terms of kind of embedding that in the system so that it lasts after Youthwork as well.

That is a much harder question. The one thing that I can think about is that my experience with prime sponsors, and it is limited to only a dozen, suggests that they pretty much understand or agree with what I have to say.

They would like to spend their money on a different group of kids and spend it in the way that I have described, but they are unable to do so for the reasons I have described.

So one thing we can try and do is to institutionalize, within the prime sponsor operation itself, a youth division in some sense--a youth office, a youth director who operates with some independence from the Elementary Secondary Education Act and Title I and so forth.

I think that is a way of doing that so that those people will have something. The other thing is not something I think Youthwork can do, and that is to really make a regional office, the Department of Labor, or something other than a paper-shuffling operation. If the prime sponsor now has current low countervailing power, countervailing pressure to do anything other than what it has always done, and the reason is the Labor Department's regional office, and at some level be able to know policy programs when they saw it, and to inquire and to encourage the expansion of quality programs. I think that would include that.

MS. MICHEL: Since I am the sole representative of the Department of Labor within the CETA system, let me say first off that I feel no need to attempt to defend the CETA system this morning, nor am I denying it. I think that, given the nature of this hearing, it would be wrong for me to get into a one-on-one with you about the CETA system. However, I think you have pointed out what I have observed in a year of working at the Department as far as the delivery mechanism--the prime sponsor mechanism--is concerned, and that is, while the federal government supports it, pays for it, we do not own it. It is owned by local chief elected officials.

I would say that neither the primes nor the Department of Labor are culprits. As long as you have a prevailing notion of revenue sharing money and local determination--wherein local elected officials are able to, in the final analysis, determine the shape of their programs and identify their own local needs that do take priority over the national needs--as long as that notion prevails we are going to have a continuing problem of how we at the federal level exert our role in the local level. We too know that our regional structure has not been as strong because of the oversight monitoring influences there might have been, and that there are major plans within the Department now to reorganize and reshuffle to make them more responsive to national needs and less malleable as far as prime sponsors' requests are concerned.

Those are comments and not questions. Now, I would like, Mr. Osterman, to sit with you at some point to listen to your further observations about youth programs. That is all I have to say.

MS. MARTIN: Dr. Pantoja, you have stressed training and education as distinctive aspects of your model.

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Would you expand upon the distinguishing features of the relationship between training and education that differentiates your approach to youth unemployment?

DR. PANTOJA: You see, if we abandon the idea of offering to minority youth the opportunity to learn the basic knowledge that the world has accumulated and be able then to use that for further knowledge development, we are eliminating that group from a fantastic need the nation has to continue to find the knowledge necessary to find a solution for these types of problems. It is amazing that we continue to think that the only ones who can do research are the majority.

So you have to have some of the minority people start getting the knowledge to study these problems. They cannot continue to be the sufferers and the victims only because they lack the knowledge that is essential to that research.

Those of us who have gone into new research know that there will be other ways to study a problem. So I am saying that we cannot say that minority young people who refuse to stay in school and who are out there in need of training and education should be given only training. We need programs where these young people can come in to learn in a different way, in an alternative way.

In the project we have, the model contains a series of sessions in which the young people are going to be engaging in the creation of jobs in corporate arrangements of their own making where they learn a skill but they also learn the knowledge of how you conduct such things, knowledge of organizational knowledge, a theory of business alongside the skills, so that they can function not only as the manager of a business but also the worker. The model itself shows that you need not only training with hard-core skills but also knowledge, theory and concepts--but imparted not through books but by doing, by talking about it, by coming in contact with a theory, by then finding out what are the skills that emanate from that theory, and by actually practicing those skills.

MS. WILLS: Mrs. Busby, you have said you feel it necessary to have separate schools for teenage parents. I was struck by that argument and was reminded that one of the grand debates in Yorthwork is whether or not we want to fund a program that would indeed keep young women separated.

Our board was concerned about the public policy of not allowing young women to return into the main school system. I would like for you to say a little bit more about that because I think it is going to be a tough alternative for us.

MS. BUSBY: I think what I said was that the few schools that did deal with the specific needs of teenage parents were few and far between. Instead of closing them there should be more of them, because it is clear that many young women do not return to their regular schools even though they have that option now in most places. When you are a teenage mother, you are not just a student. Our school system is already in trouble, and here you have the additional factor of the young mother's parenthood when the public school system is not even meeting their educational needs.

We are thus asking the public school system to take on an additional responsibility that it is not prepared to deal with. One aspect of this is that the school does not want the responsibility of the possibility that a girl may fall down when class is changing. There is also the girl's peer pressure. Our young people, for whatever reasons of frustration, can often be very difficult with each other in terms of tolerance and understanding.

So the schools for teenage mothers not only help them deal with academics but also teach them childbearing, nutrition, and other things that they are not going to learn in the regular school system.

This is why I did not say necessarily in place of public schools but in addition to public schools. Some girls will not go to public if that is their only alternative. They will not go at all. So at least have the special schools there as a possible alternative.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: We are going to thank the witnesses and ask that we move from urban perspective to national perspective.

I am going to ask the witness members to come forward in this order: Mr. O'Connell, Miss Becnel, Miss Grayson, and Mr. Kweli.

JAMES O'CONNELL

MINORITY COUNSEL

SENATE LABOR AND HUMAN RESOURCES SUBCOMMITTEE ON

EMPLOYMENT, POVERTY, AND MIGRATORY LABOR

MR. O'CONNELL: I would like to be brief if I may and just elaborate upon what, from my perspective as a minority staff member, struck me as two of the major principles that were at the foundation of the Youth Employment Demonstration Projects Act, which was extended in the CETA amendment in 1978.

The first deals with the question of targeting. The problem faced by staff members was that we knew we would have a very limited amount of dollars to deal with the problem of youth unemployment. Our assessment was that some 200,000 to 250,000 youths could be served with $100 million.

We recognized at that particular time there were some 3 million unemployed young people aged 16 to 24, and that $1 billion would give us the wherewithal to reach about 7 percent of that population. For that reason Congress decided to try to target those funds on a relatively small segment of that population. It came up with the 85 percent standard, the 85 percent of the lower living standard budget, which amounts for a family of four to some $8,000 or $9,000 per year as the eligibility criteria.

Now, many people have commented that Congress is unfair in doing this, that is excluded a large population of people who should have been served--those from upper and middle classes. I think it is important to underscore the fact that Congress intended for that relatively small amount of funds to be targeted at those most in need.

I think we would like to know as the year goes on what to consider in the appropriations for the Youth Employment Demonstration Act for next year. I mean, what has been the effect of that project? Has it led to a lack of employment for a general part of the youth population?

The second principle that I want to spend a coupld of minutes on is the whole question of linkage between the manpower establishment, the CETA program, and other service deliveries. At the very heart of YEDPA, was an assumption by members of Congress that considerable redundancy characterized the delivery of services to the youth population.

Congress took a look at what I felt to be a real multiplicity of uncoordinated programs. If you look at that population and who serves it, you can enumerate CETA, the education establishment, local and post-secondary educational institutions, the work incentive programs, the employment service, Title XX, social services, vocational education, vocational rehabilitation, and community based organizations just to name a few. Congress perceived that collaboration needed to be established between those service deliveries, that we could not continue to justify to the Appropriations Committee so much overlap and so much duplication in reaching a particular population.

What we did in the Youth Employment Demonstration Projects Act, and you see it equate throughout Title II of the new CETA, is to foster greater cooperation between those various service deliveries.

My own experience in assisting Senator Jacob Javits was with Title II, which I just want to mention now. The first deals with the 22 percent set-aside that is in the youth employment and training programs. That is a set-aside of money from the amounts allocated to the prime sponsors that must be used for in-school youth. It must be carried out on the basis of joint decrees between CETA prime sponsors and local educational agencies.

The reason that we wrote that particular provision into the statute was that Senator Javits feels that in many instances the world of education and the world of work act as if one doesn't know the other even exists. That parallelism seems to be a serious problem in moving poor youths, especially from the classroom to the work place. We wanted to design a set-aside that would not tie the hands of prime sponsors and local education agencies as to specific types of programs they would operate, but at least say, "This particular money must be spent in cooperation."

What comes across again and again for members of Congress is the criticism on the part of educational officials that manpower programs are too work oriented, that the programs lead to dead-end jobs. We hear criticism from manpower officials that education programs are irrelevant, that they are not really preparing young people for the world of work.

If that is true, then we feel that there is a natural opportunity for those two systems to work together to develop joint programs.

The second type of linkage I would like to refer to is one that really is not in the Comprehensive Employment Training Act but which we think holds great potential. It deals with the Community Services Administration reauthorization bill, in which Senator Javits wrote a provision to establish a new special emphasis program for youth employment opportunities in community development cooperation.

The whole question of moving the private sector into youth employment opportunity and youth employability development is an untapped resource in the view of many members of Congress. We got at this a little bit in Title VII of CETA with the Private Industry Council, and we have also gotten at it now with the Community Services Act, the Economic Opportunity Act reauthorization to try to get community development corporations a leg up in volume themselves in CETA youth employment programs. We think that has tremendous potential for helping not only to establish an improved working relationship between those institutions but also, ultimately, to improve the opportunity of the young people themselves.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: Miss Becnel?

BARBARA BECNEL

ECONOMIST AND HOUSING SPECIALIST

AFL-CIO

MS. BECNEL: Good afternoon. I am pleased to have this opportunity to present the views of the AFL-CIO ON issues related to the education and employment of hard-to-reach youth.

The AFL-CIO recognizes that there is a segment of the U.S. society that lives on the edges of the economy and for whom economic opportunities practically do not exist. This fringe society is found, for the most part, in the nation's urban areas and is composed primarily of young people who are handicapped by educational inadequacies and are also experiencing both prolonged and high unemployment.

The employment position of black teenagers in the U.S. economy has been relatively unaffected by both the progress of black people in general and by conditions among other young people. Unemployment rates for young blacks during the '70s have hovered at depressing levels, reaching an all-time recorded high of 45.4 percent in July of 1977. The most recent figures available show that the level of teenage unemployment continues to be a problem of great magnitude. The overall unemployment rate for teenagers was 16.5 percent in December 1978, while for blacks the rate was a sobering 36.9 percent.

To the extent that a job can keep young people in high school and college, high unemployment rates seriously affect school and education. High unemployment can lead to high crime rates and an increased incidence of burglary, drug addition, and rape.

However, providing a job in and of itself is not enough. Closer attention must be paid to the type of job for which training is being provided. In fact, the success of the employment and training programs designed to help these hard-to-reach youths may very well hinge on the availability of such jobs and on the quality of jobs made available.

Study after study has concluded that the hard-to-reach youth, young people who have trouble getting jobs even in good times, are motivated by the promise of obtaining jobs that can support a modest standard of living and that offer the potential for advancement to jobs of some quality. Thus, these young, unemployed, and low or unskilled urban dwellers must be able to find meaningful economic opportunities if there is to be any hope of averting the human tragedy that is otherwise certain to follow.

The AFL-CIO recognizes that a high priority must be given to training and employment programs that are targeted to youth. We would like to see increased attention and emphasis given to on-the-job training. On-the-job has proved itself as an effective method of getting people into permanent private-sector jobs.

Upgrading programs likewise serves a useful purpose in moving lower level, lower paid workers up into permanent private-sector high skilled, high paying jobs. At the same time it opens up entry-level jobs, which can be filled by low-skilled, economically disadvantaged workers.

Also, the AFL-CIO is in favor of federally assisted economic development programs that have as a prerequisite for assistance a definite commitment by an employer for a specific number of jobs requiring specified skills.

Jobs that reduce unemployment and increase purchasing power are essential to a national environment of sustained and balanced economic growth in which people and communities thrive and prosper. Providing economic opportunities for all Americans is in fact the basic prerequisite for an effective and comprehensive national manpower policy.

I would like to make one additional comment. It is going to be impossible to bring down structural unemployment if the nation is experiencing high statistical unemployment. That is the reality, the bottom line.

It is unrealistic to think that, if regular skilled workers are looking for work in the private sector, the private sector will be seeking the economically disadvantaged workers with limited skills and work experience. We ought to think about the recent GAO estimates that we will probably be in a recession by the end of this year, that we are looking at a gross national product real growth rate of something like 2 percent this year, and we know through past experience that we need at least a 4 percent real growth rate in the GNP yearly just to stand still.

With that I have to leave, and I am sorry.

MR. MCMILLAN: Miss Becnel, could you tell us briefly what the AFL-CIO's efforts are in regard to doing something about its track record in opening up apprenticeships?

MS. BECNEL: Well, the building and construction trades, industry, and members of the AFL-CIO recognize historically we have indeed--our track record has not been great. We have not been perfect in that area, but, indeed, we are working to open up and to make opportunities available for minority youths.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: Miss Grayson?

SUSAN GRAYSON, DIRECTOR, HOUSE SUBCOMMITTEE

ON EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES

MS. GRAYSON: I would first like to say that I will aid your schedule problem by being extremely brief. For one thing, what we are in the process of doing on the Subcommittee of Employment Opportunities is drawing up what you are doing today. That is, taking a look at what is happening, what works, what look to be the most promising approaches and evaluating, even trying to find the right questions to ask before we can evaluate the programs out there.

Just to describe briefly what the subcommittee will be doing, we intend to begin this spring with some intensive hearings in cooperation with the Committee on Elementary and Secondary Education, looking at the tie between vocational education and youth unemployment. I hope this will give us some of the answers to the linkage issues that Jim O'Connell raised and that are a priority concern of this committee.

We view the authorization of the youth employment programs last year as a demonstration effort. Youth unemployment was of the highest priority last year, and it seems to be a catch issue just as private-sector involvement was the catch issue this year.

I hope we are not working with fads. I hope we are trying to reach some long-range solutions. In reauthorizing the legislation next year, in viewing it this year, we are not going to be trying to find some quickie mandate solutions. We hope to really be able to isolate the effective programs, provided there is adequate support for these programs, to fund them at a level that will actually have some impact.

In addition to the broad overview of the kinds of programs that are being authorized under the youth titles of CETA right now, we will also want to look at how youth employment fits into the whole question of full employment. While macroeconomic policies alone cannot solve our unemployment problems, we cannot really effectively provide the resources and expect to have the results that we need without some very major macroefforts to bring unemployment down.

Second, we will be looking at youth unemployment as it relates to welfare reform. Along these lines testimony this morning on pregnant teenagers made me wonder about priorities that may be established under legislation being proposed by the Administration.

As I understand it, it is still in the discussion stage, but one recommendation is that the jobs would go to the primary wage earners and families with children. The primary wage earner would be required to work--that is, the children would be over seven years old.

What I am wondering is: How effective is it to not provide employment for those young mothers who are the most vulnerable and the most receptive to the kind of training and services that we can provide through the youth programs, through welfare or through whatever mechanism we can so that they do not become dependent and do not reinforce the cycle of dependency through their own children? I raise the question whether our targeting in that instance is the correct approach.

Then, of course, we are going to be looking extensively at the linkages with other institutions, not only the school system, the vocational education, but the full concept of community development--community development corporations come to mind immediately as one likely linkage. How can we bring youth employment more effectively into our whole strategy for increasing job opportunities through economic development?

Finally, we will be trying to see how private industry can be more effectively utilized.

One real concern that we have is the inability to truly respond to what works in the legislative process. Youth employment is especially difficult to evaluate in the traditional terms of placement, for example, or short-term outcomes. Are we really seeking to provide welders through this system? Is the whole point to create skilled workers now who can go into jobs in the next six months and hope to have a career in that field in the next 20 years? I think that is unlikely. What we really want to do is create the kinds of work attitudes, work experience, exposure to the work world, attainment of basic skills that enable people to become ecnomically self-sufficient whatever their final career choice.

It might be more effective for us to look at such measurements as basic skill improvements, whether they return to school, whether they go into military service, whether their criminal behavior is reduced.

But the Appropriations Committee will be looking at placements, and the public in general will say, yes, how many have you put to work, are they continuing to work, what are the salary levels after they have left the program? It is a serious problem.

Finally, I would like to speak briefly about the cuts that are proposed in the Administration's budget for 1980.

First I suppose I should say at the outset that Congressman Hawkins has come on the record as opposing these cuts. He will be making strong efforts to see that the amounts cut are restored and, in fact, that there is an enhancement of funding for youth employment.

I think the assumption that the cuts were made to further target programs is fallacious. To take one example, in the summer youth program there is a 20 percent cut. That program serves 100 percent disadvantaged, 37 percent public assistance recipients, and 57 percent minorities. It would seem that if the real intention is to target more, then the summer youth program should have been increased.

There is no question that the political view and the public sentiment right now are toward targeting more, but I think we need to be concerned about the long-range effects of such targeting. For one thing, there has always been the concern that when a program is highly targeted, the stigmatization will have a negative affect on the outcome.

Then there is a real concern about the level of public support and of the funding levels that will be maintained when it affects a limited portion of the population. When talking about appropriation levels this is a concern we all need to address. In the best of all worlds we might be able to find funds for the programs we need at the level we seek, but this is not the best of all worlds.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: Thank you. Mr. Kweli?

KUJAATELE KWELI, DIRECTOR, YOUTH DEVELOPMENT,

NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE

MR. KWELI: I would like to address this from the larger context of youth development rather than youth employment. Growing up has never been easy. However, our nation's present approach to youth development is making it progressively more difficult. We began this century fighting for compulsory education and against the exploitation of youth as cheap labor. We may end this century fighting for their rights for alternate educational processes and guaranteed work-experience opportunities.

If you do not know where you are going any road will take you there, but if we cannot agree on where we should be going with our young people in providing them with the opportunity, the environment, and the resources to learn, to work and to develop to their maximum potential, then we must admit that we are on the wrong road.

Our search for the right road is partially impaired by our lack of imagination. Let us examine some of our role models. One I would define as television. Another I would define as tunnel vision. A third I would define as a lack of vision.

Television has done us a disservice in comedies, dramas, in news. In the memorable ABC special "The Last Fall," the message was clear. It was brutally clear, if unbalanced, that youths are becoming increasingly hostile and antisocial, that black youths are bizarre, homicidal, and suicidal, and that crime might be eliminated simply by throwing jobs at youth. Tunnelvision tells us that parents, churches, and schools are the primary responsible parties in youth development, that the criminal-justice system is our tool for rehabilitating young people, and that the state of youth can be altered or can even be examined by reviewing crime statistics and unemployment statistics. Lack of vision results in the ultimate destructive practices and philosophies of concentrating our resources on direction more frequently than prevention, on looking at our secondary schools and accusing them of not being responsible and thus excusing them from the reform that is necessary.

In modern America, parents, schools, and churches can no longer be expected to carry the total burden of equipping young people to cope with our society. The load has grown too large, the resources too small. Our educational institutions are out of tune with the evolving requirements of the world of work. For our young people, television has often become a primary conveyor of values, attitudes, and behavior models.

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Youths are confused. They know they will live a world vastly different from that of their parents, but they are unaware of how to cope with their own future. Our schools are not helping them by only concentrating on academic or vocational preparation. They have forgotten to teach employability skills, punctuality and effective verbal skills.

Jobs stop crimes. Unless youths gain a positive self-image and sense of social and civic responsibilities from their employment, the crime statistics will not improve. It can be forcibly argued that pseudo-jobs do nothing and have a negative affect encouraging irresponsibility, disrespect, and contempt for the society that created them.

The numbers game: We cannot allow ourselves to fall into the trap of solving only the thing for which we have numbers to support. We must admit that we do not now have the adequate tools for determining the scope of youth problems. If we are to make a difference, then we must be concerned with more than the quantity of people served and the cost per client.

About the criminal-justice system: The American experience with that system has demonstrated conclusively that institutional contact is more likely to result in recidivism than rehabilitation. Incarceration must be a tool of last resort.

As for education, abandoning or replacing the existing school system is not realistically achievable in this century. The simple truth is that with all its faults the public school system remains the only mechanism for educating the majority of our youth. Consequently, our challenge is to reform it so that it better prepares our youth to successfully compete in today's world. This will require reordering priorities, restructuring processes, reallocating resources; it will also require linkages between the criminal justice system, the employment system, and the educational system.

My final point is that the problem of youth is not a youth problem. It is a national problem. Our limited commitment and resources to deal with that problem is a national tragedy. We should be concerned about youth not because it creates a problem with them because ultimately it creates a problem for all of us. It robs us of our future.

America can and must take the time, find the money, move the obstacles that presently inhibit the development of its youth. It is time for a national policy on youth development that manifests a faith in our young people.

Later this month the National Urban League will be releasing a statement of national policy points. There are 10 recommendations in all, but there are three in particular I would like to end my presentation with:

First, a presidential commission on youth needs to be created. The commission would develop legislation to achieve greater interagency coordination at all levels in educational and youth services programs and to ensure greater adherence to national objectives for youth.

Second, youth development offices should be created within all government agencies. Their function would be to incorporate into all major government contract grants and programs, resources for youth including work experience, leadership development, recreational or career guidance and youth service opportunities.

Finally, a reform of our educational system is needed to reflect a greater understanding of the needs of learning with different environments, behaviors, resources, and goals. New approaches should include greater involvement of the student in his career planning; wider use of out-of-school, nonformal learning; extensive community education; and a greater emphasis on teaching employability skills.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: The panel has questions.

MS. MICHEL: Susan, in reference to something you said: Within the CETA system we have had to do some reeducation because traditionally--you are absolutely right--the measure of success has been job placement, and of course when you are dealing with 15-year-olds and they are out of school or about to come out of school that is not necessarily the best course for them.

However, I am interested because one of the things that we tried to get taken care of for youth in the legislation was a stipulation that there would be no problems for adults about limited participation in CETA. But we could not get any exemption for youth from the thousand-hours-and-30-month participation limit. It just does not make a hell of a lot of sense if a kid comes into the CETA program at the age of 15, that over a five-year period he or she is limited to 30-month participation.

MS. GRAYSON: I would not agree. When we put the limitations on CETA, we tried to serve the largest population we possibly could with the system. There has to be a tradeoff between serving one person for an indefinite period of time and providing services to a greater number. That is always the problem you have to consider.

Also you cannot assume that CETA is the only alternative out there for that individual. There are other resources that can be brought to bear on their particular problems.

MS. MICHEL: It is true, except, a lot of the people who testified this morning suggest that unless you can do some multiyear programing for very young persons then you have problems in taking them from point A to point B. When there is some artificial limitation to participation that does not necessarily fit with their readiness to exit the system, that has at least programmatic problems.

The other thing is that the philanthropic community is not much more committed to solving these problems than any other sector of this society, and the resources in that community have dried up. The ability of community-based organizations to raise funds from other sources has become increasingly difficult. So, I'm not as enthusiastic or as encouraged as some others may be about the ability of people who are giving those services to raise significant funds from other sectors.

MR. MCMILLAN: In about five presentations this morning, different folks referred to vocational education in one aspect or another. Vocational education has a massive amount of money, obviously, which could have some impact on the whole question we're dealing with. Yet, it seems to me--and this is an indictment, I suppose, of sorts--that the track record that vocational education has borders on criminality. It's a basket of racism and they keep getting money, year after year, and they do nothing. I'm just wondering who in this establishment watches over vocational education.

MS. GRAYSON: This is one of the issues that we want to get into, Mr. McMillan, when we hold our Oversight hearings this year. If I can cop out in one way, I would say that it is not an area over which our committee has jurisdiction. That is Congressman Hawkins' can't answer your specific question about the kinds of evaluations that are being done or the monitoring, but I think that one of the concerns that was raised when we re-authorized CETA this time around was the necessity to tie in much closer and not have two separate systems that didn't speak to one another--that often worked at cross purposes--and to try to establish a much more coordinated, complimentary relationship. We don't know how well that's going to work. We do know that we've provided incentives for it to work.

MR. BOONE: There is one thing thus far in Youthwork's experience that I think bears a great deal of scrutiny, and so I will simply make a comment rather than ask a question, but hope in the process that there is a great deal of thought given to it by all concerned, including Youthwork, Labor Department and the Congress. Complexity is proving to be a monumental enemy of the poor. To be able to understand exactly what you're supposed to submit, and how you're supposed to submit it, for any kind of grant consideration often requires the assistance of an army of paid technical assitance experts. In many cases, information about programs without a great deal of special alternative effort never reaches local organizations in closest contact with communities. One of the problems that Youthwork has discovered is that there has to be an enormous amount of special information passed out. There have to be alternative routes for getting information out because in many cases the interests of prime sponsors is the containment, not the distribution, of information. Even when such information gets out to community-based organizations, the very format of application turns them off. It's just too complex and too complicated. So, in many cases what we found is that the very process of attempting through our rhetoric to reach poor people is severely compromised by the process all of us seem to be locked into.

I don't know what it would take to change that. Historically the answer has been not to change it but to add more technical assistance personnel so that we have an enormous army of middle-management people who are supposed to be the bridges between the complexity of the federal system and the needs of poor people. I say this because several of you have talked about the importance of linkages, coordination, the more judicious use of funds, the avoidance of waste, but what we see, I think, even when we push for linkages, the linkages themselves become so complex and the methodology for securing the linkages becomes so complex that in many cases once again we're greeted with form rather than content in terms of trying to reach and work with poor people. Now, this is an enormous task that Youthwork is involved in, and it's a task Youthwork by no means will answer by itself, and it's a task I hope the Congress itself will consider in relation to the more judicious use of funds and the ability to get those funds down to community-based organizations.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: I'd like to again thank the witnesses for taking the time from their busy schedules to appear before the panel.

At this time, we are going to return to the original agenda and let Mr. Watkins make his presentation.

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TED WATKINS, ADMINISTRATOR, WATTS LABOR COMMUNITY ACTION COMMITTEE, LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA, ACCOMPANIED BY FANNY MEYERS AND PAUL SMITH

MR. WATKINS: Thank you, Mr. Bannerman. You have put a little water on my fire. I have been listening all the morning to a number of propositions about how to deal with the problems of youth. In nine out of ten of the presentations, it appears that the presentors are more tied into the status quo than of making any real basic changes in the approaches to getting black youth involved in the mainstream of American society, and I have to address that issue, because my feeling today is that American blacks are in worse shape than they were right after the Reconstruction period.

It is amazing to me that in the early days when I first met Dick Boone over across the way in a big hotel that we had a 90 percent black participation in the war on poverty, and 10 percent others. Today in every meeting that I go to I find that there is a 90 percent other participation and a 10 percent black participation in the war on poverty.

I heard someone this morning say that summer youth job slots went begging last year. In Los Angeles, that was because the city bureaucracy would not allow the slots to go out to areas of greatest need.

What we have tried to do is appraoch Watts as the pioneers who approached California, when they were on the plains of Kansas and thought there was something better in California and crossed those mountains and that desert, and they began to go against all odds in order to get to that valley and began to try to build an empire. We have tried to do the same thing in Watts.

One of the problems we find lies in the educational system in this country. I have never heard any educator advocate that teachers be subjected to the same process of screening and evaluation and testing that the poor people they teach have to go through. A person can enter kindergarten at the age of 5 and by the age 50 never have received a test to see if they could teach. Once they go through four years of college and get a degree--and they don't care if the degree says they made a D or whatever in those subjects--they need no other credential to be able to stay in that system once they've put one year in and gotten their year of whatever they call it. From that point on you've got good teachers and bad teachers, and most of the bad teachers are in the black community.

After 12 years of schooling, we give the seniors a test and find out that they're now at the level of the sixth and seventh grade. If those kids who finally get through high school decide to go on to a college or university, they have to spend two years in junior college just to pass the test to get into the university. At no place in all this is there anyone who tests to see if that teacher who gets that salary can produce a student that can read, write, spell, do math, or any of those subjects, and something is wrong with that because it's the only system that I know of that you are not required to produce a product at the end of whatever your journey is. There's something wrong when all of the legislation and all of our programs seem to constantly be giving our kids to that fatal institution. I don't understand it, and it's one of the things that we in the Watts Labor Community Action Committee have tried to do something about.

[There followed a slide presentation in which Mr. Watkins showed how WLCAC is involving youths in community projects to revitalize Watts. Among the projects: a bus system, housing developments, a grocery store, landscaping services, a farm, a shopping center. All operations but one (a house-moving company) are owned and operated by WLCAC.]

Incidentally, some of the best craftsmen that we have been developing are in certain skills that we find in our women. One 19-year-old is going to be receiving her journeyman's classification in April. We don't have an apprenticeship program. We name who is going to be a journeyman and who is not going to be a journeyman. That is because of some special arrangements that we made in 1968 with the Building Trades Union after Walter Rufus said that if we couldn't make an arrangement with the Building Trades Union that he would give WLCAC a charter to organize skilled tradesmen in Watts, and that was kind of a little hammer that we were able to hold over the heads of some of these people who didn't want us to be in the labor movement at that time.

This week we started negotiating to purchase our own house-moving equipment. There will probably in the next five years over 800 homes moved in South Central Los Angeles, and we have created what we feel is the beginnings of a rehab and renovation industry. Most general contractors do not want to get involved in rehab because of the unknowns. We are trying to get involved in all the areas of greatest needs--from the mill to the finished product.

None of these things have happened without a lot of obstacles and a lot of problems. We have had trouble getting programs off the ground, because of the bureaucracy. For example, when they decentralized for more efficiency, we had 25 people working in the Department of Labor's district office in southern California, covering Nevada, Arizona, and our Watts. Today we have more than 350 doing the same job for the City of Los Angeles alone. It began to be a question of how much paper you can generate, and then when you deal with the county, you find a duplicate effect. Now, this was all done to make things more "efficient."

Paper becomes the main thing, not what you do. They don't care about your problems; they don't care about whether you do what the President says, that he wants to see visible, physical things. They don't care about that.

Another is that most of the people who come to us are people who basically have not found out where the problems are. Most of the people who run programs do not live where the problems are. More and more affluent people are getting into the social services field and fewer and fewer poor people. When you begin to get new jobs that pay $40,000 and $50,000 a year, you don't find what we found in working with those problems. I think that this is one of our major problems.

QUESTIONS FROM THE PANEL

Q. We attempt to be innovative and effective in using Department of Labor money, and in the use of unemployed people doing the kind of visible, physical projects that you've shown us today. Can you elaborate on your paperwork problems with your prime sponsor?

MR. WATKINS: We find the prime sponsor more of a hindrance than a help in what we are trying to ask them. What we recongized is that in 1970, legislation was passed to prevent Community-based organizations from doing any politicking, any lobbying, any legislative work, but prime sponsors have formed one of the biggest lobbying groups in this nation, and they are extensions of city governments, county governments, and everything else. I can't understand how that is possible when we who really need a voice in Washington can't come to Washington and lobby for our own survival.

Q. Do you see community-based organization as a more effective way to use Department of Labor funds that are attacking the problems of teenage unemployment?

MR. WATKINS: Oh, definitely so.

Q. Have you ever had a chance to use the Office of the Secretary of Labor?

MR. WATKINS: No, I haven't, other groups, but not the Secretary of Labor.

Q. This Administration has a new term, the "partnership"--meaning partnership between the pbulic and the private sector. What has been your experience in watts in gaining support and assistance from relationships with private industry and business in the area, and what do you think the outcome is?

MR. WATKINS: In the '60s there were a lot of approaches to trying to do something with the urban problem as it related to the black community. A lot of new industrial projects were started. In the '70s we began to see a withdrawal from all sectors, including the industrial sector. What has happened in Los Angeles is that even those things that were built with federal money, including the Watts Industrial Park, are using the cheapest labor that they can find to man those plants. Nine times out of ten, those plants are manned by illegal aliens.

When you begin to talk about a relationship that brings private industry and us together, they come together in a meeting place, at a dinner where they buy a table and all of them get their picture taken as being part of a cooperative effort. But when it comes to action--getting blacks involved in their process--it doesn't happen. I see it in California and I see it everyplace I go: We are in worse shape now than we were in the '60s and in the '50s.

Q. Mr. Watkins, how do you see the education system in the Los Angeles area? Do you see young people going on to college or maybe some of the other areas? What is the future, if any, for our youth throughout the nation?

MR. WATKINS: Our community has witnessed a decline in its educational situation, but there are solutions to the problem. My feeling is that if we have youth who want to be doctors, that those youth ought to be able to go into a junior high school that teaches nothing but medical arts. There is no reason for a youth to go into a junior high school learning about the revolution in 1492 if he wants to learn about what kind of medicine was used in 1492 on the Niña, the Pinta and the Santa Maria. There is no reason why a curriculum can't be put together with that kind of input. Why does a kid have to go 12 years before he can even begin to get into a career? The cost makes it almost impossible for a kid in Watts today to get advanced education. In 15 years there has been only one example of a success coming out of Watts, and that was a lawyer who was a Rhodes scholar back in 1964. Ninety percent of our kids come out of high school as a failures and come out of Watts as failures. There's something wrong.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: We will now hear from the two young people who are accompanying Mr. Watkins.

MS. MYERS: My name is Fannie Myers, and I'm the payroll supervisor for the Watts Labor Community Action Committee. I started working for the committee 11 years ago as a trainee in the Neighborhood Youth Program. The job consisted of paying expenses at the rate of $1.27 per hour. The knowledge and training that I have acquired through this agency could never have been learned in the school system.

Some characteristics of hard-core unemployed youth are they are poor, live in overcrowded homes, their parents are on welfare, no one in the home is employed, and they are constantly in trouble with the police.

Community agencies are a greater help to these youth than the school system because the people in the agency really care, and the agency is in the center of the community and open to all the people in the community.

Our agency provides a service to everyone in the community from youth to senior citizens. We provide housing, transportation, hot meals, home repairs and recreation. I think that the kind of youth programs that are most likely to succeed are the ones in the construction field because the youth can look back at what they have done and be proud. They can beat out their anxieties and frustrations and know that they've done a job that's done well. I think that the kinds of programs that are least likely to succeed are those without pay because the youth must have some incentive to do a job well.

Our agency employs about 900 youth, and I am sure that each one feels the same as I do, that without the community agency, who knows where our community would be today?

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: Thank you.

MR. SMITH: My name is Paul Smith. I came into the program accidentally. A friend and I went to the unemployment office to check on his unemployment check, not really looking for a job, when a worker came up to us and inquired if we were interested in work. Naturally we said yes. He asked us if we had ever done construction work before. We said no. So, he then asked us to fill out some forms. From there we were taken to a construction site which was to become our work site. The job consisted of helping on-the-job craftsmen lay foundations on roofs, lay tile and assist in the framing of houses. After months of rigorous training, I was placed with a carpenter, whose name was Hanson Wells. We then were stationed at Manpower, which is a training area for unemployed youths to teach and to train and to do jobs, such as banking, accounting and bank tellers. Our job was to remodel the building, which consisted of painting, hanging doors, putting side and corner molding on doors and walls, repairing floors and adding office space for youths that would be attending classes there.

After our work was completed, we were commended on our work. From there we have remodeled offices and doctors' buildings.

Now that I look back, I see how much I have benefited from the training program and how the community has grown in such a short period of time, and this gives me an incentive to encourage other youths to try and become involved in some type of on-the-job training program, which could not have been possible without the government-funded program sponsored by Mr. Ted Watkins at WLCAC.

MR. BOONE: Mr. Smith, did you go to school in Watts?

MR. SMITH: Yes.

MR. BOONE: Did you go to Freemont?

MR. SMITH: Yes.

MR. BOONE: What, if any, opportunity did you have at Freemont for any kind of what we call here work/education combination?

MR. SMITH: None, really.

MR. BOONE: One of the things that Youthwork will be dealing with in the year ahead is grants to organizations to work with what are probably dramatically mislabled hard-to-reach youth. Most of the young people that I know are not hard to reach. It's the agencies that are hard to reach, but one of our responsibilities as a board will be to identify projects that are prepared to reach long-term unemployed, out of school, inner-city young people in some form of work and education.

I am assuming that in terms of reaching those kinds of young people we are talking about on the education side, basic education, English skills, math skills, and some not sophisticated job training. Now, do you think, on the basis of your experience and your experience with the Watts Labor Action group that there is any possibility of that kind of education for those young people being offered by a place like Freemont?

MR. SMITH: I would say no.

MR. BOONE: If Freemont can't provide it in terms of basic education now, who is going to provide it?

MR. SMITH: Well, in my case I had to go out of the area to get the skills and on-the-job training.

MR. BOONE: Now, I am not familiar, Ted, with the current program that you are running, but are you currently offering the kind of basic education catch-up for young people?

MR. WATKINS: Yes, we do have basic education classes. Actually, we cover everything from the cradle to the grave. We have a child-care center where kids 2 years old are now learning three languages. We are finding that we can do more in six months--people are more able to do typing in a nine-month period than they have been able to do in four years of high school. Our placement rate in our clerical field has been 92 percent.

MR. BOONE: The reason I'm asking that question is that you were seated here earlier when there was a discussion of the need for linkages, linkages between educational institutions, and the CETA prime sponsors, and so on. At this moment, I am not convinced that the traditional institutions of formal education at the secondary level are prepared to make a concrete move in the direction of offering kinds of basic education that are desperately needed, and I don't know any alternative but to go to alternative systems.

MR. WATKINS: In 1975 a friend of mine by the name of Walt Parker, who was an administrator in Los Angeles city schools, was faced with the question of taking $800,000 away from the Watts Labor Community Action Committee and putting it in Los Angeles city schools. Walt Parker testified before the Los Angeles City Council and said the Los Angeles city schools could not fill the needs of the poor and the hard-core unemployed because they were not committed.

MR. BOONE: And then they dumped it?

MR. WATKINS: That's right. You know that, don't you?

Let me say one other thing, too, because I speak from where I come. I have a son that graduated from Freemont High School. Today he can't read and write.

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Afternoon Session

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: We have with us to testify on rural aspects of this problem some distinguished Mississippians. We are going to start with Lewis Smith, from the Center for Manpower Studies at the University of Mississippi.

LEWIS H. SMITH, CENTER FOR MANPOWER STUDIES,
UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI

MR. SMITH: I would like to spend a short time, not to repeat most of the problems that are similar in rural areas, but rather than tell you what you should do and what I hope you won't do when you consider funding projects in rural areas. There are some major problems that face rural youth in their efforts to prepare for and secure employment that I think you should keep in mind when you look at your projects for funding.

One is that the poor quality of education that rural youth receive places them at a disadvantage and helps to keep a rural labor force constantly at a very low skilled level. The political jurisdiction in the rural areas, particularly in the South, have the lowest per pupil expenditure for education that you'll find anywhere; you should keep that in mind when considering programs that talk about spending a considerable amount of money and effort placing dropouts back into school.

You should look not only at what the schools can offer them, because it didn't offer them that before, but whether that school has the capacity to offer them anything different. I would be particularly suspicious of a rural school that offered a very innovative program as to whether it had the capacity to carry on such a program in a rural area.

Also, bear in mind that there is heavy pressure on rural youth to drop out of school. The jobs they can obtain with a high school education are exactly the same jobs that they would obtain with eight years of education.

Another problem is one of isolation. It hinders development of youth in their effort to prepare for the labor force and in their efforts to secure employment in the local labor market.

In this context I should like to underscore something, and that is, the programs that are needed for rural youths are not necessarily the high-skilled training. Rather they need basic education to prepare themselves for jobs, for going to work, for being in a work situation eight hours a day and to meet the requirements of the job. This is particularly true when you consider that to find work they are probably going to have to move into an urban area, where they will be in an entirely different work environment.

Now, although it may seem like there is a great deal of similarity between rural youth and urban youth, I hope Youthwork programs will not repeat the mistakes that other human-resource programs have made in the past, and that is to simply make rural youth programs carbon copies or adaptations of urban youth programs.

Job information programs, for example, are a total waste of money to rural youth. Rural people, whether youth or otherwise, are very much aware of what job opportunities exist: none--let's face it. You waste your money when you spend it on job information programs. There are a few skilled jobs that exist in rural labor markets and the biggest waste I can imagine is to spend money in the local area to train 30 or 40 or 50 people to be mechanics, barbers, and knowing full well that there are no jobs available for them.

You should also be aware that transportation is a major barrier to program success, transportation between schools and the job.

A majority of rural youth also will have to migrate to find employment because there is no alternative. In this context, one would have to say that minority youth in rural areas face the biggest problem, because if you look at migration patterns, you will find that white youth with better education tend to migrate. They go to college; they go to jobs elsewhere. The less educated stay in the rural areas and have the highest probability of finding what jobs there are in the rural areas. Blacks migrate across the educational spectrum, so that white youth who migrate are much better prepared, more likely to find jobs than blacks who migrate.

I believe you should look very carefully at projects or proposals that you can help, not necessarily totally fund, because we know you don't have that kind of money, but a cooperative arrangement that you can help get started that will employ youth. There is very little that you are going to be able to do in rural areas until the Government decides to have a national rural policy--not just a rural youth policy. The problem of developing jobs is not one which a rural youth program by itself can attack.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: The next witness is a gentleman who has been there himself as an ex-offender, and has worked his way out and up. He has proven that you can take a negative experience and make it into a real asset.

Mr. Lockhart?

EUGENE R. LOCKHART, COUNSELOR, GREATER MOUNT
CALVARY BAPTIST CHURCH YOUTH PROGRAM,
JACKSON, MISSISSIPPI

MR. LOCKHART: I would like to talk about the youth problem in Jackson and the surrounding rural areas of Mississippi. This area of Mississippi, as well as the entire Bible Belt--rural southeastern United States--has all of the youth problems that the rest of our country has, but with a triple dose of racial prejudice thrown in.

The youth service project that I am employed with designated goals to seek out the youth that are burdened with the myriad number of problems that our society has heaped upon them. I have clients from all over the state who come to me or are referred to me. I have interviewed people with problems that you can hardly imagine, and I say this with no reservations: After having stayed in rural Mississippi all of my life, the bottom line or the culmination of our efforts is trying to serve the youth of our country with gainful employment.

Well, I'm sure you can imagine how tough it is trying to sell the potential worker that I consult, what with his unique background and the prospective employer's general racial prejudice. It is getting much worse in my area, ladies and gentlemen. We, the agency, are doing good work in combating the youth problems in the inner city of Jackson, even though there are severe misgivings and problems in working under the CETA guidelines, its bureaucracy and traditional institutions.

The problem, it seems, is about to become more acute because CETA is about to become severely curtailed, if I'm not mistaken. Also, it seems the social service programs, of which I am a part, are supposed to be the first to go. I have real problems with that.

I would just like to say if the needy people are not being served through these agencies and you cut out the program, what is the replacement for these needed services? More jails? More capital punishment? Well, you are going to need plenty of both if this present trend is allowed.

I urge that a youth service program be secured for our young people of Mississippi. Let's make sure that the money flows to the groups who really reach the youth, make sure of that when you secure the program. We have a high crime rate in Mississippi--rural, city, whatever. I was an offender, so to speak, but I have traveled a lot and I say the problem is more acute down there now than it is anywhere.

I truly believe the problem with high crime rates, school dropouts, domestic problems in the homes, and the many other social and real problems with our youth would subside if we had an effective youth services policy. For humanity's sake, our present Administration's policies in dealing with our youth must change.

CHARIMAN BANNERMAN: Thank you, Mr. Lockhart. Does the panel have any questions?

MS. FRANCO: Mr. Lockhart made references to something that was discussed earlier by the gentlemen from the Urban League, which was a call for a broad redefinition and the development of a national youth policy that goes beyond the employment problem. I don't want to pick on Harriett Michel, but she is a member of the Administration, and I would like to ask her if there is any serious consideration in this Administration of such a broad redefinition of youth policy.

MS. MICHEL: In some ways, that suggestion has begun. There is now something called the Vice President's Youth Task Force, which had a false start, unfortunately. In its original design it was quite grandiose in terms of what it was supposed to accomplish. Its main objective was to bring together the various agencies that ran programs that someway, somehow affected the lives of young people. Because other things were happening there, the task force was relegated to primarily a public-relations effort.

Now that CETA has been passed and the youth dollars have stayed pretty much intact in the President's new budget the task force is beginning to receive some attention again. As for any other body focusing interagency attention on youth, that will probably be held in abeyance until the Department of Labor and the rest of the Adminstration begin to draft future legislation for these programs. That could possibly be one of the things that come out of the future legislation, but there is nothing beyond the Vice President's Task Force on the books now.

MR. BOONE: The testimony that both of you have given suggests a great deal of pessimism, and I see nothing in the current Administration that would suggest a major initiative in the interest of rural people, and specifically in the interest of rural youth.

Where does that leave Youthwork? Where does it place us in terms of spending what amounts of relatively few dollars? What kind, if any, impact do you think those dollars might make, given what at least I, for one, take to be an unstated policy of benign neglect in relation to rural areas?

MR. SMITH: Obviously, those dollars can't do very much to change rural areas. I think you are going to have to look at two things: One, can you do anything with your money to change the educational system as it exists? Because that's where you have to fight the problem, in the educational system in the rural areas of the South, and you have got to change it entirely. You have got to change its attitude; you've got to change its direction. You are not going to build large numbers of alternative educational centers. You have no political base for it. You don't have the money for it. I don't mean for Youthwork; I mean the whole country.

The jobs that are going to be available for rural youth are not in rural areas, and probably the best thing you could do is to prepare youth for the fact that they are going to have to move out of the rural areas and make it feasible for them to do so in the least painful possible manner. I don't see any other way you can spend your funds very well.

Now, to the extent that you can influence jobs in the rural areas, I think work experience is extremely important in rural areas, but I don't think it ought to have anything at all to do with whether the individual is skilled for the future jobs. There aren't that many jobs that you are going to have for a future job at all. If he gets benefits from being at work at a certain time, or giving him that kind of access or that sort of thing, that's a plus, but the major benefit of work experience is simply income, because that is what rural youth need more than anything else right now.

MR. LOCKHART: As I stated, I am employed in a youth service project. Number one, the youth service project is essential--not an extra ingredient on top of whatever else we are doing, on top of having welfare.

You have youth in Mississippi who don't go to school. There's no present law that I know of that can make them go to school. But we also have youth, we have babies who have protruded stomachs. Their breath stinks like they are giving off gas. I'm not talking about something isolated; I'm talking about going from house to house. It's a problem there that you could not imagine.

If you've got any money you could use in Mississippi doing anything with the youth, we can use it.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: You said there are no jobs in rural areas. Would you agree that from our present definition of "commercial jobs" there are no jobs in rural areas? Would you also agree that if there is an additional economic development activity in rural areas, there could be additional jobs in rural areas, skilled jobs? And would you also agree or disagree that if we were to redefine jobs in what we call public-service employment to include such things as water and sewage, nutrition, fixing dilapidated housing (of which we have 74 percent in Mississippi), and if we would think of it in terms of adult literacy where we have 600,000 illiterates out of a population of less than 3 million in Mississippi--if we could do things to alleviate some of those conditions and make those things into jobs and couple that with some economic development dollars, would you then agree that you might be able to make a different sort of statement about the potential of rural areas and the creation of jobs for young people?

MR. SMITH: I would agree totally. The list of things that could be done in rural areas is almost limitless.

So, my resonse to you would be, yes, you are absolutely correct--if you can tell me where the money is coming from to do it. At present, the public sector can't fund such projects, and even if the government put the money in there, I don't think there is the expertise to take rural youth and train them to do it and to oversee them to make them do it. I don't think the rural areas have the capacity right now for the kind of program that you're talking about.

MS. MARTIN: I would like to thank Mr. Smith for reminding the Youthwork board and staff that the public school system is not what it should be and we should take a very close look at it as we examine some of these programs. I think we have pretty much accepted the school system on faith up to this point.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: The next speaker, Peter Edelman, will address the subject of coordinated state and local perspectives.

PETER EDELMAN, FORMER DIRECTOR, NEW YORK
STATE EXECUTIVE DEPARMENT, DIVISION OF YOUTH

MR. EDELMAN: I am delighted to be here and to tell you about some of the things that we are doing in New York State. There are three areas that I want to stress, and in all of them I think the question of small-scale private enterprise as an outlet or a placement situation for young people is important.

The first area is the activities of the Division for Youth of the State Juvenile Corrections Agency. We have taken in New York the federal concept of revenue-sharing money and CETA discretionary money, which was 5 percent and 4 percent money given to the state Department of Labor. We are spending some of that now at a total of about $5 million annually on work experience, educational training for the delinquent, and status offenders who are placed with the state agency.

I don't think very many state juvenile correctional agencies are doing this. It is obvious that it ought to be done, and I would hope that people around the country, as well as the Youthwork itself, will look at what is being done in the State of New York on this subject. The effort encompasses both institutions and community-based programs, residential placements and non-residential placements. It tries to build a continuum to do a sophisticated assessment of the aptitudes and motivations and skills and interests of the clients of the agency to move on through a specially designed job-readiness curriculum that's been developed and then on into various combinations of vocational training and/or work experience, both simulated and real.

I stress that because I think that something that's as obvious as it is has not been part of the rhetoric or the reality of the rehabilitation or habilitation--or service is perhaps the best word--that is delivered by state agencies to kids who come into their clutches as a result of court action.

The fact is that thousands and thousands of children and young people are committed to state agencies, and I think it's terribly important that resources be made avilable and leverage be provided in any way that can be done to get those agencies directly into the business of dealing with the vocational development, work experience, training and other needs of the kids.

The financial structures as provided by the Federal Government--and of course the Federal Government is the major funder in the jobs area--are lousy. The fact that we used countercyclical revenue-sharing money is an indication of that. There is not enough money in the 5 percent and 4 percent pots (and this is something that really needs to be looked at).

The second area is that of the program in which we put the money (again, countercyclical revenue-sharing money) into probation agencies. In New York State, those are county agencies, and again, we can all agree that the county or state agencies that have probationers under their supervision are in general very disappointing in their performances. Nonetheless, they are there. They have millions of clients.

One of the reasons they are lousy is that they found it very hard to get ahold of money beyond the money that pays the probation officer. We found, by putting some money in the hands of the probation offices locally, and insisting that certain connections be built to the school systems and employers and others, that there was a payoff. These programs are using a heavy emphasis on small-scale enterprise. They have produced impressive retention rates and I think also, although the time frame has been very short, some indications of the structural change in the performance of the probation agencies.

As you look at targets for your funding, don't be as put off by our mistrust of the official agencies, although you do have to be extremely careful. It can make a difference to deliver ways for those agencies to do a better job. Obviously, it's a challenge to figure out how you discern those that could do a better job, if funded, and those that would not.

The third area is a small program we started that has funded community-based organizations. The program uses the penalty and interest fund of the unemployment insurance program at the state level--which got us into a lot of political trouble for it. Two of those organizations are represented with me today and I'm sure they will be talking about it. What we have found is that if you put money into the hands of a community-based organization and you free it up to find private-enterprise placements in small-scale enterprises, and you rely heavily on using job developers to find those jobs, and you put on a wage subsidy and you combine it with education and training and the like, and you have the supportive services which are basically delivered by the community-based organizations, it works. I would just add two or three things. One is that as Youthwork looks at ways in which it can use its funds to develop models, to encourage things locally, please be humble about the distance. I have seen first-hand dozens of examples where smart, intelligent, determined young federal bureaucrats went to the street and found somebody who looked terrific and never asked anybody else in that community or in that state or in that county about whether that person was really terrific and ended up wasting money, ended up pouring money into somebody who locally was a joke.

The second point is, please look for connections. Look for multiple payoffs locally. Look for folk who either are plugged in or who can get plugged in to other folk at the local level when you put out money. In the connection-building, be skeptical of school systems, but at the same time be willing to use school systems. They are not all bad. For that matter, don't leave any established public agency out of it merely because the history has not been edified.

MS. WILLS: Where did you find the penalty and interest money? Is it because there was flexibility in the state law?

MR. EDELMAN: The Governor's public opponent suggested there wasn't flexibility in the state law, and all I can say is, when the Comptroller of the State examined the matter last summer, he ultimately concluded that there was flexibility in the state law.

MS. WILLS: What were the relationships between the state and the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration?

MR. EDELMAN: In terms of utilization in this area?

MS. WILLS: Yes.

MR. EDELMAN: Well, basically, in New York State LEAA and Juvenile Justice funds are not used for projects that employ people--that is, they didn't have any stipend associated with them. There have been efforts to suggest to grantees at the local level and to suggest to prime sponsors in relation to such grantees that they talk to each other, and in some cases those efforts have indeed produced multiple funding.

Now, a second sort of connection is that at the state level, the State Division for Youth receives annually about $2 million, which is combined with LEAA and OJJDP funds; and we have certainly been very conscious within the State Division for Youth of putting these funds together, in some cases contracting with the same agency that we contract for for services. We then go to and work with the employment people.

Chronologically, the building up of the community-based service came first and the emphasis on employment within the state agencies came second. So I think the coordination of funds has been imposed from within rather than from without.

MR. BOONE: What, in your experience, might be the framework of an appeals process by which local groups that have very good programs and find themselves turned down by local primes, have some access to an alternative review?

I ask that simply because in the last round of grants, in addition to what we assume to be quite legitimate decisions by local primes to count some applicants out, we also, I think, found quite arbitrary political decisions based on favoritism or, in some cases, a history of animosity between the local organization and the local prime sponsor.

I know that the U.S. Department of Labor has some sort of a process by which this sort of review can take place, but in most cases, such reviews operate as a major wait, and in fact the notion of an aggrieved party going through the process is scarey.

MR. EDELMAN: I would suggest some kind of appellate process that goes directly to Youthwork, if it can be done, rather than through the normal chains of appeal that exist for other employment-related funds. I don't want to sound flip, because there are obviously strong reasons to be working with the primes--but whatever the reasons for involving the primes in the grant process, I think it's a little different in terms of the appellate process.

MS. MARTIN: I have two questions I hope you can answer quickly. This morning we heard testimony about the value of skills training and we have also heard about the values of attitudinal training, and I expect that Youthwork will be getting project applications and zero in on one or the other. In your experience, I just wondered if you have considered that, and, if so, on which would you put your emphasis?

The second thing is, you talked about the small business and your experience with them; why is there a payoff?

MR. EDELMAN: On the first, Ruby, I hate to be forced to make a choice. I think that both are necessary, and like so much in the manpower area, what we have had is the mistake of concentrating on one or the other. In the classic 1960 you trained people and then there were no jobs, and the mistake we tend to fall into today is giving people work experience but no training. Somehow, we never can get the whole thing together.

In general, it seems to me that we have tended to do too much on the hard skills. We forgot that young people coming along, particularly those who had stopped functioning at the third- or fourth-grade level and had been in the street and the rest of it, were going to have some rather serious problems of capacity to function in the labor market--you know, take off their hat when they come to work and stuff like that.

But I hope we don't now go too far the other way and say, "Hey, get them all straightened out so they know if they show up on time and get out of bed in the morning and be polite to the man, it's all going to be all right."

So I hope you will look at a combination.

Now, on your other point about private enterprise, all I can tell you is that it works. We know in general that large-scale private enterprise is not very interested in teenagers.

It's not the age of entry into large-scale private enterprise. Their job-market behavior is such that they move from job to job and so on and so on.

We also know from experience that public-sector or non-profit employment is not out of the question, but private-sector employment is the major area of employment in this country, and what we have found programmatically in New York State is that placement of 17-year-olds with the bike shops of this world and TV-repair and small manufacturers--quasi apprenticeship kinds of things where you are clear that the relationship can be individualized, where the young person can relate to somebody, where a relationship of trust can develop--we have found that this works very nicely. The employer can see firsthand that this person can be a good worker. These have multiple payoffs of much more coherently developing the skills and the working capacity of the person and resulting in rather high rates of retention.

MS. FRANCO: I wonder if you could say a little bit about current CETA methodology for funding the private-sector work experience for especially hard-to-reach young people.

MR. EDELMAN: I don't really know enough about it except to say that on the whole it's not there. You have a certain number of demonstration projects that have come up over the last couple of years, but in general, when you go to the prime sponsor and you talk about the kinds of things that I have been talking about, the prime sponsor is not in a position to do that. That's what it comes down to.

We have a couple of added problems. Number one is the state has trouble getting money out of the county. So, anything you want to do on a statewide basis, it's very hard to get money from the prime sponsor.

Second, at the local level, certain folks who ought to be working with hard-to-reach kids--well, just in general, hard-to-reach kids are at the end of the line. On the whole, the primes are going to look at projects that reach kids with whom they're going to have a high success rate. So, if you have touched the current system, you've got an added stigma on top of everything else of being poor, a minority, and all the rest of it. Whatever the nature of the employment, they tend not to be funded.

Then when you add this element of the private sector on whoever the clientele, it's basically not possible, as I understand it, to get the money out of the regular CETA system.

MS. MICHEL: May I just add, Charles, the bias, by the way, is not in the CETA system. They would love to be able to utilize the private sector in a different way and, hopefully, the Private Industry Councils now being developed in each prime sponsorship will come up with more creative ways. Traditionally, it has been OJT. Under the YEDPA legislation we were limited to how we might involve the private sector. We had the waiver of 100 percent, the ability to do 100 percent wage subsidy under the entitlement program, and we are trying to walk very carefully through the other legislation doing some specific demonstration programs for subsides, but as you well know, the AFL-CIO and organized labor in general has a very strong opinion about subsidies in the private sector. Some of their fears are very real.

MR. EDELMAN: The Private Industry Council--well, there has been a certain effort to involve small business by insistance of the Federal Government. Nonetheless, the PICs are going to tend to be the business establishment in town. It's not easy to aggregate the TV repairs. By definition, they are a bunch of little guys, but, nonetheless, the kind of stuff that works best is the hardest to get at.

MR. CANNON: On your theory of small private enterprises, excluding the large ones, aren't you worried that that is going to be using public monies to encourage a subtle but new form of segregation--putting people into special kinds of jobs?

MR. EDELMAN: No, because I am talking about youth employment; I'm not talking about the general manpower policy of the country, and I don't view it as an education issue. I view it as a way of bringing people along to the point where they can function on an unsubsidized basis in the labor market.

I'm having trouble seeing the segregation argument--unless that's an application of a broader argument that there ought not to be totally homogeneous inner-city communities, and there we are on a philosophical level that I assume we can't resolve today.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: The next witness is Miriam Thompson.

MIRIAM THOMPSON, DIRECTOR, ADVOCATES FOR CHILDREN,
NEW YORK, NEW YORK

MS. THOMPSON: I want to focus my remarks on the essential connection that Peter spoke of that must be institutionalized if any education and employment program is to have a chance of success, and also focus on our experiences and support in forging these connections.

I will make available to the panel literature on Advocates for Children and the citywide youth network it has helped organize and is now coordinating with a core leadership group of community-based organizations located in the economically distressed areas of South Bronx, East Harlem, Upper West Side, Lower East Side, South Brooklyn, and the low-income working-poor sections of Queens.

Leonard Collins, who joins me today, is a youth representative from the "DOME" Project. He will describe it and the work of our citywide youth organization, which was born less than a year ago and has already sponsored a five-month demonstration youth employment program and a youth-run advocacy program, both supported by the State Division for Youth.

I think these two programs and the way they are structured attempt to realize the factors Dr. Pantoja described earlier today. AFC itself is a ten-year old community organization devoted to representing young people and empowering them and their parents to secure their rights to education and employment, and to determine and control the realization of those rights.

We often feel we are banging our heads against an economic system incapable of producing or unwilling to produce jobs, thus ensuring an unemployed class; an education system that is failing and alienating numbers of young people--black, brown, white, poor, and working poor; and a bureaucracy that requires a lifetime to understand and learn how to negotiate with.

But we must keep fighting and creatively formulate alternative strategies to redress the inequities and injustices that are bound in our system. Our program has begun to explore some of the possible connections through which the grievances and inequities and injusticies, particularly those experienced by youth, may be redressed.

In New York, a promising connection is Outreach Two and the emphasis DFY has placed on advocacy programs and youth leadership and employment programs as alternatives and deterrents to youths dropping out of our system and dropping into the criminal justice system.

Another program supported by DFY and the state Department of Labor, not the prime sponsor, began a few short months ago and provides an automotive training program for youths leaving DFY institutions. These youths are rarely, if ever, picked up by prime sponsors or traditional contract agencies. The youths get actual hands-on experience in auto repair- a marketable skill- setting up their own shop committee, participating in the project's advisory council. The program is sponsored by the socially conscious UAW, specifically through its Local 259, by auto dealers, who not only will place DFY graduates in real jobs, but also seek to setp up a co-op.

Advocates for Children has participated in this effort by identifying and training and supporting and connecting the program to the community in which it is located. These two programs in which AFC has been involved demonstrate the potential of the positive connections I will now describe.

The first is community-based advocacy organizations, which we believe should be the focal point of private and public efforts in support, because it is these organization that reach and hold on to youth, and to which youth reach out and hold on to. It is these organization that can provide the political leadership training and experience that Congressman Mitchell so wisely stated should be a part of every employment training program, and, I would add, every education program as well.

It is these organization that can help us all end the myth about maintaining hard-to-reach youth in traditional schools. It is these community-based advocacy organizations that know their community and can identify and recruit another connection: cooperating public and private employers. It is these organizations that will help and hold accountable Labor and other departments, Congress, state and local agencies, prime sponsors, political structures, etc., as to how huge sums of money are being spent or mis-spent.

Everything I have said so far refers, I hope, to well-grounded concrete promises. Their significance, the models they project, the modest committed suport they have received from a state agency like DFY are obviously not enough. Our program in New York City, the program in Mississippi, programs all over the country with which we are familiar suffer the same agony--and that is, access. We have got the youth. Young people have reached out to us. Young people are reaching out to one another, but we all need help in getting the big dollars for our youth leadership and employment mission, and the big commitment from the agencies that control those dollars, from the local agencies and prime sponsors to the Feds.

One last point: Prime sponsors under present regulations, it is my understanding, can fully subsidize only public or private not-for-profit employment. But we did what everyone said we should do under our Demonstration Youth Employment Program which ended by the end of January; we reached the dropouts, 14-, 15-, 16-, 17-, and 18-year-olds.

We made the creative connections with the union employers, community-based private employers and so on, but the prime sponsor can't pick this up except for jobs partially subsidized by private employers. Few emplyers will partically subsidize the 14-year-old dropout and then keep him on after the job subsidy. We need ways to jawbone more employers, like those with federal contracts, to open up jobs specifically to our poor and working poor youth population.

My last comment is really an attempt to answer Dick Boone's question: Can Youthwork have any impact? I think you can if you have the political courage to do so. I think you can publicize and support the community-based organizations and the youth they represent, who are fighting to survive. I think you can help all of them ensure that the big guns support our youth in the manner they deserve.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: Thank you, Miss Thompson. At this time we will hear from Leonard Collins.

LEONARD COLLINS, ADVOCATES FOR CHILDREN,
NEW YORK, NEW YORK, DOME PROJECT

MR. COLLINS: I'm from DOME Project, which is a program that has an alternate class of junior high school students and after-school programs for junior high school and high school students, and a work program. Our work program consisted of 18 students from 14 to 16 years of age who worked on a five-day basis. Three of their five days of work was at our center. The other two days they volunteered their services to stores, companies, offices, hospitals and any other thing that they felt they wanted to get into.

This program was funded by the New York State Division for Children. After five months, the work program was cut off. Many students benefited from this program. They learned how to apply for jobs in the real world. They learned how to be responsible, how to get to work on time, how to act. It kept a lot of those students off the streets, which kept them out of trouble. In New York the streets are full of trouble.

The way the program helped some students was that during their two working days they worked at stores, hospitals, and companies and when their employers found out the program was being cut off, instead of having the kids leave, they would hire them, placing them on their payroll. We have six students who were placed on, and another 12 were just left out and just stayed at the center. They didn't like that, so they just volunteered to work for nothing where they worked during those two days.

In my neighborhood it even changed the employers' minds about the youth, because in my neighborhood mostly all the crime was done by the youth.

One way the program had helped me was, I was learning about photography and I had applied for a job at the Daily News and I was learning all about developing and everything, but the program was cut off, so I never finished, but I did learn enough to apply for a scholarship at the International School of Photography. Even though I didn't get a job, the scholarship will help me out in the future.

I feel our program deserves to get another chance. Also, DOME Project has seven other programs. It has formed a youth advocacy, a leadership group with young representatives from each group.

Our main goal is to empower New York City youths to act advocacy on behalf of the youth, addressing issues such as truancy, dropping out, suspensions, exclusion, and securing appropriate education and support services, increasing opportunities for employment, too. We have started a hot-line, a newsletter, newspaper, and radio program, informing youths of problems around the city. We are also planning a youth conference where community leaders and legislators and unions and employers and the Board of Education to develop better education and more employment opportunities for the youths.

CHAIRMAN BANNERMAN: Now I would like to call on Mr. Domingo Garcia.

DOMINGO GARCIA, EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR,
IBERO-AMERICAN ACTION LEAGUE, INC.,
ROCHESTER, NEW YORK

MR. GARCIA: Puerto Ricans on the Mainland are a young community. The national median age for Puerto Ricans is 19.6. The Rochester community is four years younger than that. Puerto Ricans have younger, larger families than the average American. More than three-fourths of the families have children under 18 years of age, compared with more than half of all families in this country. The average Puerto Rican family size in the Rochester area is 5.59 persons. There is a tendency for our Mainland population to stay young, because many of the older people have a tendency to return to the Island. In 1975 the proportion of the Puerto Rican children in preschool years was nearly double that of the national average.

We must also review the economic conditions in which Puerto Ricans find themselves on the Mainland. Puerto Ricans occupy the lower rungs of the ladder, a condition that grows progressively worse for us while it gradually improves for most Americans.

In 1959, for example, Puerto Rican families earned 71 percent of the national average; in 1974 earnings dropped to 59 percent of the national average; as of March of 1975 the median income for Puerto Rican families was $7,629, compared with a national median income of $12,836.

The proportion of poverty among Hispanics the same year was twice that of the national average. Almost one-quarter of our population on the Mainland received some kind of public assistance.

Unemployment among adults ranges from 16 to 27 percent, while youth unemployment for the most part is at 60 percent. In Rochester city schools and in other urban schools in the Northeast, Puerto Ricans have the highest dropout rates, the highest absenteeism, higher suspension rates, are most in need of compensatory education and are not likely to receive it. Federal programs have had very little impact on Puerto Ricans. Enrollment in such programs is traditionally very low, simply because the government fails to recognize the uniqueness of the Spanish-speaking communities.

There are some major problems affecting employment of youth in the Puerto Rican community that must be recognized. One is the lack of education. Having dropped out of school, many of our youth lack even the most basic reading and writing skills. The numbers of Puerto Rican youths enrolled in vocational programs is negligible. Most lack the work experience that is often required by employers. Most are unable to enter apprenticeship programs simply because the requirements for those programs are too high, even for those who complete high school. Having been rejected by the system, many youth fear that opportunity for them does not exist.

There are inadequate support service systems. Most programs directed to the young population fail to deal with the needs and problems and aspirations of the Puerto Rican youth. Most employers refuse to hire youth below the age of 18, claiming that labor regulations limit their working conditions. Rather than be placed in a position whereby they may be violating the law without being aware of it, employers take the easy way out and simply don't hire kids under 18. Nor can Puerto Rican kids compete with their suburban counterparts for even the lowest entry-level jobs or dead-end jobs.

If you were to walk through a few of our inner-city chain-store supermarkets, you would most likely notice the absence of black and Puerto Rican cashiers, busboys, baggers, etc. The same applies for franchise fast-food enterprises such as Burger King and McDonalds's, except for those that are owned by minorities, and, in that case, you will find 100 percent of those employees are minorities.

Federal and state programs lack the flexibility needed for the design of innovative approaches to deal with youth unemployment and youth problems in general. Two youths who may live in the same apartment building, attend the same school, share the same friends, when they go to apply for a federal program, they may find that one of them qualifies for the program and the other one may not, not because one's family income is greater but because their family size may differ.

I also question the inflexibility that exists in terms of not accepting into programs youths whose family income may be slightly above the maximum allowable, but who share basically the same problems as other youths.

Requirements for youth programs, if they are to be fair, should provide a great deal of flexibility. On-the-job training requirements should allow for 100 percent reimbursement to private employers who are willing to retain at least 50 percent of the participants who successfully complete an OJT program.

Fast-food franchises or supermarkets, grocery stores, and neighborhood shops are placed where this work experience can be developed. These employers are also likely to employ other youth, who may play a peer model.

We are presently operating a program like this funded by the New York State Division for Youth and have had tremendous success in developing these kinds of jobs.

To deal adequately with the needs of the Puerto Rican youth, we must deal with the lack of education, so there must be remedial education programs. Any remedial education program, of course, must be supplemented with career counseling and other kinds of support services, as needed.

Puerto Rican participants in federal and state programs suffer the consequences of having to participate in programs that were designed for others and by others, with no sensitivity or knowledge of their unique needs, cultural differences and life styles.

[Ruby Martin assumed the chair of the forum.]

CHAIRPERSON MARTIN: The next witness is Richard Levy.

RICHARD LEVY, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT, DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS

MR. LEVY: I have come today to talk about our New Directions program. New Directions is a series of partnership options that were developed by the Detroit public schools in 1977, at the behest of Detroit's Economic Growth Council. That council asked the school system, what could business and industry and labor organizations in the city do? In other words, what would the school system want those organizations to do to begin to improve education and begin to tap the problem of youth unemployment?

Essentially, we developed three generic types of programs. One type would help students bridge the gap between education and work through on-the-job training, co-op experiences, counseling, field trips--you name it, it was there.

The second need was to familiarize our professional staff--teachers, counselor, administrators --with the world of work, what it's really like out there in the world of work.

The third program was that industry and labor have developed tremendous community development programs. They know about consumerism; they know about parenting; they know about a whole slew of activities, and we'd like, as a school system to provide opportunities for business to come in and provide some of those services for the community.

I feel compelled to respond to some of the comments I've heard today, specifically on what role the public school system can be and what Youthwork can do. First of all, as a school system we are asking private industry in New Directions for help. We need to know what kinds of factors stimulate private industry to begin to employ youth. We've given very little attention to the kinds of factors that motivate an organization like Chrysler or General Motors to begin to reach down and serve youth.

One of the real factors that we're finding in Detroit is the lack of information about programs that have been tried in other areas of the country. I'm going to suggest to Youthwork that if you have over 500 projects that were unfunded, we would appreciate a one-paragraph description of what those projects sought to do, the same kind of simple paragraph that's in the Youthwork overview. There are good ideas out there that for one reason or another you simply chose not to fund. That doesn't mean that those ideas perhaps could not be replicable in Detroit or elsewhere. There are many other large urban school districts, and I'm saying that we need that information and I hope you will supply it.

One thing that we learned in New Directions is the problems of perception and accountability. One of those problems is very subtle, and that's that many of our teachers, our counselors, and our administrators don't believe that youth can cut it out there in the real world. They don't want to take the risk of setting up a program to train youth in terms of either basic skills, exit competencies, or meaningful work experience. It may be related to the fact that they don't have meaningful work experience. It may be related to the fact that they don't have meaningful work experience themselves. I guess what I'm saying ties also into the need for more teacher and administrator accountability. When you're saying to yourself that these kids can't make it you're doing them a tremendous disservice.

Last, I'd like to raise an issue that I believe that the public school systems can get into the service industry business. Besides CETA regulations, rules about state certification, rules that you may maintain school only eight months out of the year, and a whole slew of state requirements, there is no reason at all that school systems cannot provide a sheltered experience in dry cleaners, clothing stores, food coops, small applicance repairs, auto, graphics, copy centers, home modernization, the very sort of projects that we saw in the slides from Watts. I'm suggesting that if school systems begin to do this and are allowed to do this and receiving funding for doing it, it will significantly reduce youth alienation. In that process, within those small service centers, they will acquire the basic skills, they will acquire the employability skills, they will acquire pride in themselves and they're going to be able to make it in the world.

I will be happy to answer any questions.

MR. BOONE: This question is addressed not specifically to the Detroit school system but to your experience in the school business. Two things, number one is, on the basis of what I've heard thus far and what I've seen, counseling and guidance for low-income young people in the inner city schools is an unmitigated disaster. Not only are counselors low status among their peers in the educational establishment, but also they are often used by principals for other than counseling and guidance functions. The ratio, as we well know, of counselor to student is abnormally high. The problem obviously is aggravated because of the tremendous needs of young people in the inner city for better understanding, better knowledge, better understanding of themselves, better understanding of the labor market, better understanding of options beyond secondary education.

Number one, in your experience, what is the educational establishment doing to in any way change that and what might Youthwork do to reinforce creative change in that direction?

Number two, I think that in most cases, schools take youth as the consumer. The notion of young people being involved creatively as participant in their own education is generally foreign to the educational institutions. To what extent and under what conditions do you believe that it is possible to better utilize young people in a discovery process that affects them and their peers, and how might Youthwork reinforce that effort?

MR. LEVY: One, in terms of how we can make better counselings, in Detroit, thanks to the General Motors response to New Directions, we will have all of our middle school and high school counselors spending at least one week as interns in an industrial setting. To gain, if you will, hands-on, first-hand experience about the world of work. This is a tremendous step forward. They will not only be learning about employment practices, but they will also be able to talk to workers, etc., out there. Unfortunately, we have not been able to expand the project yet to other areas. We would like to put our counselors, for instance, into banks, into service industries, into a whole slew of other areas. It takes time, energy, effort, to develop that.

Second, we have begun, through Chrysler, to train our counselors in new techniques. We're giving them that kind of training so that they can begin to use the support of the peer group--pressures of the peer group--to help them along in terms of this effort.

I am suggesting that by fundamentally restructuring the kinds of things that a school does so that everybody isn't channeled toward a liberal-arts education, and everybody then doesn't have a skilled trade job expectation--the example of welders has been used repeatedly today--we will begin to eliminate the kids' alientation, or at least cut into it, and we will be able to make community development, community conversation, a meaningful job.

Your second question has to do how we can use youth. I think that the answer is obvious. If we began to use youth as meaningful models in conservation activities as opposed to CETA jobs, let them continue to show their survival skills and give them some legitimacy as recreation workers, as youth gang workers, etc., we will begin to make tremendous inroads. The youth who has an in-school job and is only an office worker, a message runner, a paper shuffler, that is not a constructive peer model for the youth below him and for the youth out of school. The youth who is in a training program, whether it be acquiring skills or in building attitudes, is not as effective a role model as the youth who becomes involved in community development kinds of activities, providing services to that community, bettering the quality of community life.

CHAIRPERSON MARTIN: Thank you, Mr. Levy.

Mr. Roger Semerad, thank you for speaking with us. We apologize for the time, but we wanted to hear what you had to say.

ROGER SEMERAD, CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER,

70001 LTD., WASHINGTON, D.C.

MR. SEMERAD: We are hopeful today that in sharing our experiences and observations regarding youth employment and that transition between the world of education and the world of work, the role of the private sector, what role it can play in that transition, will prove helpful to you.

Conceived through a joint partnership of private industry and education, 70001 began in 1969. It is currently completing its third-year contract with the U.S. Department of Labor, and the network extends now to 46 communities in 21 states. Our program of services focuses on providing a bridge to unsubsidized employment for unemployed high school dropouts from ages 16 through 22. 70001 has continued to retain a strong business orientation and fully believes in a hands-up as opposed to a hands-out philosophy. No stipends are paid to the young people, nor are there subsidies to the employers. Since 1976 we have placed over 5,000 young people into unsubsidized jobs with earnings reaching over $7 million, and, of course, thousands of dollars in local and federal taxes have been returned. Despite our rapid growth, we have maintained a consistent record of achievement in helping young people, as evidenced in their overall job retention rate of 70 percent.

One of 70001's primary beliefs is that a job alone will do very little to move the hard-to-employ young person beyond the poverty line. Without appropriate job-seeking and job-related social skills, training, motivation, basic education and access, many of these young people will never be able to compete for career-oriented jobs. Thus 70001 seeks to have a long-term effect on the youth it serves through preparing him or her for the world of work and removing these employment barriers.

We as a nation have not found the full solution to facilitate the transition of the hard-to-employ from government income support to unsubsidized employment within the private sector. 70001 believes that the problem will fester until a stronger private-public partnership is created to generate realistic and flexible programs. Our experience in a diversity of operating environments has brought us to the following conclusion: Such public-private partnerships should be encouraged and developed on the basis of real, measurable and mutually benefiting outcomes.

There is a vital role between both the large and small business that can be played and utilized in the problem solving in any community, and it should be included in programing considerations.

The private sector must be given an appropriate forum whereby it can become actively involved in the planning, implementation and ongoing development of the program. We believe that this formula provides for a more tailored program relative to industry's needs, but also creates a greater investment by the private sector in the final product.

Whether on a national, state or local level, it is essential to acquire a full understanding of the resources and operating limits of each agent in this partnership. The structure for cooperation should minimize red tape, define roles, utilize all available resources, and maintain a proper balance between the public and private sectors. An essential element in getting maximum benefit out of a public-private partnership on any program initiative appears to be in the selection of a facilitating agency that understands the complexity and the mission of the program, has experience in working with a targeted population, has the administrative capability, and offers the resource of knowledge to create effective, efficient, and tailored programs.

The Detroit Pre-Employment Training Center clearly demonstrates the impact of a completely balanced public-private partnership can have on program initiatives. Opening this past Monday, the center is specifically designed to assist over 1,600 high school seniors and recent graduates each year in realizing a successful transition to the world of work. The program represents a joint effort between General Motors, Ford Motor Company, the Detroit public schools and the Michigan Department of Labor. The General Motors Foundation provided the original planning for the Center, partly as a means to diminish the high turnover of GM new hires in entry-level positions. Funding of the program operation will be equally shared between the public and private sector, with the Detroit public schools being the sole referral source for participants. A board of advisers has been formed, which includes leaders from industry, the community, school system and all the various funding sources. That board reflects the actual partnership, which is an integral part of the program and is responsible to 70001's board of directors.

Several general objectives that guide the program design: to provide the participants with the requirements for the world of work and the skills to negotiate within that system, with particular emphasis on the industrial plant environment; to support the development of appropriate attitudes and behavior in the industrial work place; to provide participants with simulated experience in the industrial world with emphasis on entry-level jobs; to provide participants with specific information that will enable them to become informed consumers; and to build a stronger chronological and qualitative link between learning and earning.

Forty young people enter the program each week. The learning cycle is four weeks in length, five days a week, eight hours a day, of which the third week simulates the second plant shift by operating from 4 p.m. to midnight. Industrial plant rules are followed as closely as possible, including the use of time clock, rigid rules on absenteeism and tardiness, an emphasis on safety procedures and the maintenance of equipment throughout the program.

Those young people who are ready to enter the labor market upon completion of the four weeks will participate in actual job-search activities with the assistance of our center staff. Once an in-school participant graduates from high school, he will return to the center for a review session on the essential elements of the program before he begins to search for a job. Post-placement support services will be provided to all participants as part of a 12-month tracking process.

We believe that the center's focus and activities fully incorporate the many essential elements of effective manpower programing. Because of the established linkage system, structure of the private-public partnership and the thrust of the program, we have already indications that the center is going to serve as a prototype for other interested communities and corporations.

I would go back to some of the earlier comments and suggest that I don't believe big business versus small business are mutually exclusive; I would urge the panel to not get too cornered into one or the other. There are an awful lot of small businesses out there, and there is an awful lot of awareness on the part of big business today that they need to take an active role in this.

MS. MARTIN: Thank you.

Mr. Richard Drabant.

RICHARD DRABANT, MARKETING MANAGER, CHRYSLER

INSTITUTE, DETROIT, MICHIGAN

MR. DRABANT: Chrsyler Institute has been in human resource development activities within Chrsyler Corporation for almost 50 years, but it's only been within the last ten years or so that Chrsyler Institute has in fact done contracted training under an organization within our construct known as an Entry Level Training Department and accepted outside funding for that. Initially we operated strictly in the provision of clients for entry-level employment under some of the "hire first" concepts, and with CETA we were able to spread some of our capabilities and expertise broader than that.

We have also for the last five years or so been much involved in youth programs. There is an exhibit that is being provided that speaks to essentially about a dozen or so models of programs that we have delivered for youth, funded by LEAA, HEW, Department of Social Services, Department of Labor, local systems, and so on.

There is some frustration that goes along with delivering such programs, and I'm hoping that from this frustration we can get some messages that will be available to you as you decide what to do with your organization.

The biggest frustration is that lessons learned have not been shared, models that should have been built and disseminated have not been done, and, most important from our perspective, very little of the good has been institutionalized, while a lot of the problems of manpower programs and so, have been institutionalized. On balance, especially as it relates to service to client populations, very little has changed.

I think that sometimes when we get together as a staff and squeeze a bottle of Scotch and talk about just how much lasting and disseminated and replicated impact we've really made over ten years, it's the proverbial drop in the bucket. It's a little bit frustrating. Yet organizations like yours can probably have some impact on that process. It really, I guess, gets to the point of being able to identify which fights to fight, and that's why we're here and we're glad to have that kind of an opportunity.

In a partial response to Mr. Boone's question from before and a partial attack on Dick Levy's answer, one of the more hybrid models we've been working with is in fact a goal-directed group counseling career development program for in-school youth. In-school youth because that's the only chance we've had thus far, and that leads into my first recommendation, and that is that Youthwork concentrate on dropouts and push-outs, the former student population that is not going to be recruited, as I'm sure Dick Levy and his boss, Art Jefferson, would agree are not going to be recruited by the school system. Other alternative methods are necessary.

Most of these dropouts and push-outs don't even qualify for some of the GED preparation because of reading levels, math levels, and so on. What I'm talking about is still utilizing things like goal-directed group counseling, but in this case deal with a series of full- and part-time employment with emphasis on the full, getting involved with private-sector job development and attempting to get the private-sector involved as much as possible, because we feel that the meaningful jobs exist there, and continue with the important elements of supplemental individual counseling, parental counseling, and so on. But put heavy emphasis on skills improvement so that meaningful jobs can be secured. Jobs are the bottom line.

Recommendation number two concerns private sector inclusion and suggests that perhaps it would be appropriate for Youthwork to piggyback on programs that are now getting all the private-sector emphasis. Harriet mentioned earlier that in fact there are private-sector initiatives coming down. But there are areas that the business sector has been reluctant to be involved in. We need to find out why.

I suggest that they feel threatened because they don't know exactly what's going to happen to them legally when they hire kids; they don't really know what's going to happen in terms of share times, in terms of precedent setting with unions that they deal with, and so forth.

Another reason is that they have a very strong nose for business and unless we can demonstrate what kind of vested self-interest is served by their involvement, you're not going to get them anyway.

Moreover, the private business sector is relatively bigoted, especially as it relates to public-sector programs, and that has to be overcome, and I submit that there are creative programs that can perhaps deal with some of that stuff. Similarly, the private business sector is intolerant of any red tape except their own.

All of those are impressions of why the private business sector is not involved. There're probably dozens of other reasons, as well. Programs that are going to piggyback the private-sector emphasis need to deal with that. Why? The answer is simple. If the goal is, in fact, youth employment and we're talking about meaningful full-time employment and career opportunities eventually, and if the statistics are the way even Jerry Ford said they were of 85 percent of the jobs being in the private sector, then I would submit that it's important to deal with that private sector.

My third recommendation for Youthwork in its spending next year is to really begin to work on the point with which I started, and that is to get involved in the distillation and dissemination process of what's already gone out, what's already been good, maybe beginning with a clearinghouse, an accumulation, a can of ideas, of things that have already worked, and then by utilizing some kind of a cadre of experts, begin to go out and provide, first of all, a needs analysis for the various prime sponsors, school districts, whoever is going to be working with youth in these types of things and, second, getting involved in almost a prescriptive set of suggestions from the clearinghouse back home, and then enough technical assistance to provide institutionalization.

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Now, Youthwork in its efforts to get out there and begin this distillation of what good went on, should use only the more technically practiced and competent experts. We've got a situation at Chrsyler Corporation where we have some very, very naive, fresh-out-of-college district managers (because that's all we're hiring for district managers), going out with maybe one business management course under their belt and advising a dealer who's been in the auto business for 80 years on how to set up his inventory of stock and that immediately loses something in the translation, even if the person is a crackerjack.

CHAIRPERSON MARTIN: Before you ask your question, Dick, Cory, would you take just a moment to explain to Mr. Levy what you were explaining to me how we plan to share information about the projects that were turned down and refunded or what?

MS. REIDER: Several of us at Youthwork are in the process of having some meetings with field associates. These are people with full-time jobs who are willing to work to 20 days with Youthwork. We are in the process of developing a strategy, and one part of that strategy may be identifying exemplary programs that may not necessarily be Youthwork projects and probably won't be for the most part, but are in operation across the country, get those written up in readable descriptions and get them disseminated.

MR. BOONE: There has been, particularly from the last speakers and this is really addressed to the last two speakers, an argument about where the need of private industry is currently considered and with the problems associated, bureaucratic and otherwise, of hiring young people, and I mean under 21, that the best interests of business and industry are served by not hiring under 21. As a result of that sort of feeling, there is a notion around that if businesses and industries cannot pick up these young people in any substantial numbers, and if war is not going to be used as a recruitment ground, then there is some value in a national service program. I am wondering what you two feel about, one, the comment that I just made about choosing the older worker rather than the younger, and your notions about the national service program?

MR. SEMERAD: I think that our experience in 70001 may be different. For the last nine years we've placed an inordinate number of young people in the retail and the distribution, which would be, probably, I think you'd agree, an exception to the general rule. There are lots of entry-level jobs. I think the retention of our young people on the job over those years has been a credit to our local program staffs becuase we do a lot of post-placement service and the Department of Labor has caused to happen an interpretation of the CETA regulations that makes it more acceptable under their scoring and credit regulations to have that post-placement legitimate and the funding would flow because mostly CETA money does fund our programs at the local level, our local offices.

As for a national service program, I would say this: I think probably in the next ten years we're going to have to see this intermediate step between school and work institutionalized into some sort of training, orientation, or attitudinal correction organization, in this partnership, because local community resources and federal resources are frankly just not going to be able to deal with this, I don't believe. I don't know how long it will be or what it will look like, but it's some place that a young person who is not sure what the wants to do or what the opportunities are, can participate in without being counted as unemployed or being disgraced because he's on the street. My hunch is that if it's developed properly that some industries, especially industries that do a great deal of entry-level training, may be persuaded to give up part of that that they do in their plant specifically and make that part of whatever this step is.

MR. DRABANT: I agree with some of the things that Mr. Semerad said, but would like to make a piggback on a couple of points that I think are critical. First of all, regarding the first question of the general bias about hiring youngsters, I think it's definite, it's real, and it's there, but it can be overcome, and it's overcome in a number of ways. In our job development for youth, we use a great number of initial entry tactics, including just interacting with adult programs first, getting the confidence built up in the employment office, and then moving into a series of other kinds of efforts. Another thing that works well for the initial entry is taking advantage of the old-boy network. Third, I would like to make the point that preparation of the youth toward the maturity angle makes a big step toward the kind of experiences that promote rather than discourage employers from dealing with youngsters in jobs. For example, we're telling that person that he's working on that job and even if it's a bad fit for him, we're going to place somebody else in that slot, so he mustn't blow it for whoever is going down the pike behind you. It's part of the responsibility that comes from group counseling.

Relative to the second question on the national service program, I'm not categorically opposed to national service programs, but such programs are really just a preparatory or a stop-gap piece for something that has to follow after, and that something is by definition and goal nonsubsidized, meaningful employment. If it can be structured in such a way as to prepare young people for eventual movement into a career pattern, then I think it's doable and I'd be for it.

MS. WILLS: Mr. Garcia, I was fascinated. You are the first person this entire day who has mentioned what people tell me is a terrible problem and that is income targeting. You mentioned that under CETA eligibility criteria, of two people living in the same apartment house and under otherwise identical conditions, one can't participate in a program because his family's income is slightly--only marginally--higher.

How do you target? If Congress had not income targeted, who is eligible for CETA? The CETA system would have been charged, rightfully or wrongly, one more time, with creaming, with not servicing the ones who need it the most, the poor. if you don't income target, recognizing that it's arbitrary, what do we do?

MR. GARCIA: Do the same thing that community development programs do. They take the target and service everybody in that areas without consideration of income.

MS. WILLS: But there's little difference. CETA is out by formula. There's a fundamental difference between a grant mechanism identity and making application and then funds that flow by formula.

CHAIRPERSON MARTIN: I'm going to exercise my prerogative sitting here in the chair and ask Mr. Semerad if he would provide for us, if it's possible, some indication of how you're going to evaluate the Detroit program, how you are going to determine whether it was successful, where it was successful and where the shortcomings were.

MR. SEMERAD: We have right now three principal areas of research going on. The U.S. Department of Labor has funded an extensive research program this year to discover what we do that seems to work as measured by retention and by positive determinations of young people into the society and workplace.

We also are just beginning to undertake research of a major project determining what it is that's going to be of interest to prime sponsors for developing the kinds of linkages. They want to know how we sell the thing basically and have over these years, and of course we get our funding at the local level from various CETA titles, governor's office, balance of state money, vocational money, private money. So, we have a mix, but predominately in most of the cities, the big money has come from CETA.

The Detroit program has an evaluation built in all the way. One of the purposes of our advisory council and the consultants who will come into that is to constantly evaluate. We were not satisfied that anybody had the blueprint, and we are not bold enough to say that we've got it right now either, but we thing we're making a gain in the whole system that's structured to provide for constant evaluation and changing that's involving both the employers, the school system, the young people in the process.

MR. SANTANA: I'm trying to get the whole thing in perspective. I haven't heard too much talk about prime sponsors and their relationships with local programs. Could someone on the panel just answer what the experience has been in terms of the prime sponsors and in terms of the hard-to-reach youth?

MS. THOMPSON: I mentioned two examples. One is the auto mechanic training program and the coop garage that we were setting up with UAW for deinstitutionalized division for youth and got no support from the prime sponsors, the first place we went to. That was one example. We got big support, obviously, from the Division for Youth and some discretionary money from the state Department of Labor. We are now trying to reach out to the prime sponsor in New York on our demonstration and employment program. However, there is a major problem, as I mentioned in my testimony. They will not fully subsidize the kind of private employment opportunities that we have opened up.

MS. WILLS: It's illegal.

MS. THOMPSON: But that's still a policy question that ought to be examined and there ought to be other resources to do that since we're told that's the place that we should go. Again, we're talking about hard-to-reach youth and we're talking about the young people who are dropping out like flies. So, I know it's illegal, but I think that it really ought to be examined.

MR. GARCIA: In areas such as ours, you have to realize that prime sponsors are very political and they tend to respond to groups and organizations that have political clout. Traditionally, the Hispanic communities in some areas haven't had that clout. Therefore, the response from the prime sponsor to their problems has been minimal.

CHAIRPERSON MARTIN: Mr. Arnold, you may proceed.

MIKE ARNOLD, ASSISTANT DIRECTOR, HUMAN

RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT INSTITUTE, AFL-CIO

MR. ARNOLD: I want to thank Youthwork for inviting me here today to discuss the very serious problems of rural youth unemployment. For far too long when people think about youth unemployment, a picture of urban life comes to mind. The urban bias is one from which many of us suffer.

Nowhere are the problems of unemployment and economic disadvantage more prevalent than among native Americans. Today I hope to offer examples of how we at HRDI have tried to deal with the overwhelming problems of unemployment among native American youth. I will talk about our program with the Navajo nation, and our newest effort to bring apprenticeship opportunities to native Americans across the country.

First I think it would be helpful if I took a few moments to explain about HRDI and the concerns of the labor movement about youth employment and training programs in general. One of the major messages that I'd like to make today is that labor can be a very constructive, positive force in training and employing young people.

All of HRDI's 59 mobile offices around the country perform a variety of different functions, including job development and placement, program development, advice to labor organizations, unions and employers, concerning the potential hiring of special groups with particular interest, such as veterans, native Americans and other minorities.

The labor movement has always been committed to full employment and equal opportunity for all Americans for decent jobs and a real chance for security. HRDI exists to make that commitment real and viable. We serve both organized labor and the general community.

In a job development placement context we were able to place over 10,000 people in jobs last year and were able to develop over 26,000 jobs. Job development placement is just one of our functions. From a local level, last year we developed over $28 million worth of programs, primarily through the CETA system. At the national level, we have programs for the handicapped, veterans, youth, and most important for our purposes here today, for native Americans.

The problems of native Americans are unique and require unique solutions. But in our view there are basic principles that must be adhered to for all youth programs, regardless of who they benefit. We can help American youth by preparing them for skilled, good paying jobs, by offering them career options, by encouraging them to continue their education to their fullest potential, and by ensuring that when they do enter the work force, they do start at a living wage.

There is a system in existence today that fulfills all of these requirements, and this is of course the apprenticeship system. Obviously apprenticeship is not the single answer for the crisis in youth employment, but equally obvious is the fact that there are many lessons to be learned from a system that has worked so well for so long.

The two programs that I was specifically asked to discuss today draw directly on the apprenticeship for their success. The principles that underline these programs can be applied to other types of programs.

In 1974 the Building Trades Department of the AFL-CIO and the Navajo Indian tribe entered into an agreement covering construction on or near the Navajo reservation. It was in response to the fact that past attempts of the Navajo nation and U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs to develop training programs had been a disappointment. It was felt that what was needed was a better link between training and job placement and a much closer correlation between training and actual job demand on or near the reservation. The problem was a critical one because the Navajo reservation sits atop 25,000 square miles of energy-rich land. For years the coal, oil and timber on Navajo lands were exploited without any lasting benefit to the Navajo themselves. With a 45 percent unemployment rate on the reservation, this was intolerable.

Out of all of this came the Navajo Construction Industry Manpower Program, or NCIPM. It's a cooperative project between the Navajo nation and the building trades unions of the AFL-CIO. It is this cooperation that we believe makes this program one of the most successful programs for training native Americans in the country.

NCIMP is a comprehensive program through which young Navajos receive from 12 to 16 weeks pre-apprenticeship training in a wide range of crafts in the building construction trade. Thus far, over 500 young Navajo young men and women have received training in 16 occupations with the cooperation of 13 international unions. Of these, approximately 300 have successfully completed their training, have been indentured into apprenticeship and are placed directly on jobs. It's noteworthy that in 1978 over 90 percent of those receiving jobs through the program received a starting wage of over $4 an hour, and the overall average starting wage was around $7 an hour. The operation of the NCIMP residential training facility, located in Utah, is similar in many respects to a Job Corps center. However, NCIMP has maintained an unusual degree of flexibility in meeting the local needs that has resulted in the development of several innovative training programs. For example, a program to train mining construction workers was developed in cooperation with the laborers and the International Union of Operating Engineers to prepare Navajos for jobs in the rapidly expanding mine-development industry.

The key aspect of this training is the level of union participation before, during, and after training. The local unions provide instructors from their ranks and assist in the development of curriculums and class schedules. During training, trainers from the crafts remain available to give advice and often visit the center to see how training is progressing. This ongoing involvement of the representatives of the apprenticeship sponsors ensures that the training being provided is consistent with the requirements of the respective trades. Finally, upon completion of training, trainees are indentured into apprenticeship programs and placed in jobs. From this point, the Navajo apprentices are treated just like any other apprentices in that particular trade.

It is this concentration and cooperation that is the most important factor in the success of the program. Because the training is preparing Navajo men and women for jobs on or near the reservation, it is not draining the reservation of its young people. This is important because many programs train rural youth for jobs available only in the city. Also, by remaining close to tribal services and family support, the odds are increased that young people will be successful in their transition into the labor force.

Obviously, not every group of native Americans is as lucky as the Navajos. Not everyone is sitting on top of energy-rich land. The Navajo experience cannot be transplanted lock, stock, and barrel anywhere else, but the principles that are the forces behind it can be. One of the main reasons the Navajo tribe has been successful is that, one, it got the early support of the labor movement and the building and construction trades unions particularly. Second, and the unions, knowing exactly what jobs were available, were able to train people specifically for those jobs. Third, supportive services were provided by the tribe, and, fourth, the young participants were prepared for their actual long-term apprenticeship by a pre-apprentice program that enabled them to learn the basics of their trade in a supportive atmosphere before committing themselves to their lifetime careers.

The Apprenticeship Outreach program, which operates in about 100 cities across the country, is another example of preparing youth for job opportunities. HRDI operates 22 of these programs, which are designed to help minorities and women prepare themselves for entry into apprenticeships. The Outreach programs are just another example of the recognition that special help is required to address the special needs of certain individuals.

Going back to our experience with the Navajo tribe, HRDI came to recognize that a great need exists among any reservation of Indians for information on apprenticeship and assistance in applying for apprenticeship positions. As a result, HRDI requested and has received funding for the implementation of a national Native American Apprenticeship Outreach Program. This program, utilizing funds made available by the economic stimulus program of 1977, while national in scope, will focus on three target areas with high concentration of unemployed native American youth in Alaska, Oklahoma, and the four-corner-states areas of the Southwest. The program represents the first attempt to reach out to nonurban Indian groups to develop effective ways and means to increase Indian participation in apprenticeships. The Native American Apprenticeship Outreach Program will attempt to alleviate the problem of unemployment of Indian reservations by demonstrating effective means of making young native Americans aware of opportunities in apprenticeships. In addition, HRDI is designing and implementing ways of assisting native Americans in applying for and obtaining these positions. Because of its close ties to the labor movement at the national and local levels, HRDI can offer an important linkage between outreach, training and job placement.

Another element of the Navajo program has been a course on money management. Since the median income on the Navajo reservation is approximately one-half that of the nation as a whole, the average starting wage of $7 per hour for these graduates represents a great deal of money for the average Navajo. We found that the basic information we provide on personal budgeting, banking services, credit and borrowing has become an important part of our curriculum.

Another important consideration in programs for native Americans and rural youth is to ensure wherever possible that training is keyed to potential or existing job opportunities in the area. Consideration should be given to projected major construction projects or new industries moving into the area. Where the local economic base is lacking, it may be necessary to implement training for jobs that require relocation. In this case, serious problems can result in the areas of housing, transportation and cultural conflict unless proper consideration is given to these areas in the planning stages and counseling and supportive services offered. Particular sensitivity is needed when native Americans are involved because of the special cultural differences. Program planners for rural youth must be prepared to provide special services if relocation is seen as a legitimate solution to rural unemployment problems.

Let me once again emphasize the important role that organized labor can play in the development and operation of employment and training programs. The Navajo experience is a perfect example of how cooperation between unions and the community, in this case the Navajo tribe, can produce a highly successful program. Unions are capable of offering top-level training and facilities. They offer the highest wages, best benefits and the greatest degree of job security.

In closing, let me say that HRDI would be pleased to offer its support to Youthwork in any sound program proposals that might result from this forum.

CHAIRPERSON MARTIN: Thank you for your generous offer.

Mr. Wilkinson.

GERALD WILKINSON, EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR,

NATIONAL INDIAN YOUTH COUNCIL,

ALBUQUERQUE, NEW MEXICO

MR. WILKINSON: Indian youth, I am told, fall into the hard-to-reach category. This is probably why Indian young people have remained reasonably sane to this point. This does not mean that Indian youth do not have serious problems that could be eased by being reached by the right kind of projects and programs. Most youth programs in the Indian community have failed. The reason is that Indian youth do not conceive of themselves as a category apart from others. Because an Indian is 16, he does not necessarily identify with someone else just because he is 16 also. He will more than likely identify with his family, or his clan, or his tribe, above people his own age. So, in a sense, there is no such thing as Indian youth. There are only Indians of different ages. We do not want to change this, because we feel that it is a positive and healthy thing. However, it does mean that anything done for, with, or to Indian youth must be community related.

The problems of Indian youth are not unique, but the emphasis is different. The Indian population is booming on a par with the population explosions of Guatemala and Bangladesh. This means that each year a larger and larger group of Indians are entering adult life. The implications of this fact on Indian cultural life and economic life are enormous.

Second, alcoholism among Indian youth is a critical problem. The reasons for this inordinate and excessive drinking are many and complex, but basically it does no good to preach to Indian youth to stop drinking when the pain of being an Indian is so much greater than the pain alcohol can inflict on him. Every act from the outside contrary to the interests of the community is taken very personally by Indian youth. Out of weakness to do anything about it, his reaction is often alcoholism.

Third, the dropout rate from grade school is often 60 to 80 percent. The same rate is true for many Indian college students. Not only is education not relevant to him, but also non-Indian society is nonrelevant. At this point in Indian history, I believe that programs must be designed that stress not cooperation with non-Indian society but independence of it, not coping with society in general but coping with his own community. A great unhealthy dependence has been built up between Indian young people and outside federal programs to the extent that it is very difficult for an Indian youth to mature. Long after he is no longer a ward of his parents, he remains a ward of the government.

With this base, a second stage of planning might be to reach the Indian young person to cope with society in general, but coping with the Indian community must come first.

Now, there are a few directions I believe that one could go in trying to discuss how your organization could contribute to this problem. I think, one, there are programs that could be developed under native religious leaders where youths are taught to perform some traditional process in the community. For example, I think it's not unreasonable to support Indian young people who wish to become medicine men. Second are recreation programs that could bring the youth into contact with adult activities. Third, programs that teach traditional Indian efforts like communal agricultural could be very important. Fourth, programs that teach construction of solar energy projects and relate this notion of appropriate technology to traditional Indian values could be very important. In addition, I think apprenticeship training programs with adults for jobs geared to employment needs on the reservation could be very helpful.

One kind of training program that Indian youth would be very responsive to is in the area of range management. For example, if you have a lot of tribal cattle herds, then programs to gear Indian youth into being able to manage those cattle herds and other kinds of lifestock operations would be very helpful. Also, I believe that counseling for Indian young people is very important, and I think the counseling should utilize older Indian people in the community who traditionally perform that kind of function, because I think that basically the problem of Indian youth is not one of jobs. The problem is one of education and a feeling of self-worth.

The situation of Indian youth is not likely to change until the pressures and assaults on the Indian community cease. This is due to the closely knit relationships in our tribal community, but constructive programs can assist Indian youth in assisting the community towards self-determination and dignity. Basically Indian youth employment programs should emphasize more strengthening an Indian's tie with his community and emphasize less strengthening his tie with people his own age. By being allowed to become a part of the community struggle to survive as a community, Indian young people will get a sense of wholeness and worth that will benefit themselves and others and lay the foundation for better things in the future.

MS. FRANCO: Mr. Arnold, I have a question for you, sir. The program that you described on the Navajo reservation sounds like a very good one, and it seems to involve a lot more than just cooperation, and it sounds more like a partnership between HRDI and the tribe. Can you point to any other apprenticeship programs that HRDI has entered into in partnership with other minority groups or women's groups to achieve the same kind of end?

MR. ARNOLD: The best example is the apprenticeship outreach programs that I mentioned. It's not through a direct partnership with any minority group, but certainly they're targeted at minority groups and women, and they do much the same as the Navajo program, in that they are pre-apprentice-type programs to prepare individuals to bring themselves up to where they can compete in the testing that is required for apprenticeship systems and getting the documents ready for apprenticeship, to give them counseling and orientation about the world of construction work. We have tutoring to prepare them for interviews that might be required by apprenticeship sponsors, and general support to help them to compete for apprenticeships.

MS. FRANCO: I'm sure it will not be news to you to hear that there has been a great deal of criticism of those outreach programs to the extent that some say the unions have not gone much beyond the pre-apprenticeship programs and that very few graduates of the pre-apprenticeship programs from minority communities actually ever enter the full apprenticeship programs. The program you've described about the Navajos, which is much more of a partnership, seems to be successful.

Is there any reason why you couldn't experiment with broader partnerships with other minority organizations that might be more successful than the outreach program?

MR. ARNOLD: As I pointed out, the Navajo situation is unique, in that primarily energy resources on the reservation and the development of those resources has generated a tremendous amount of construction activity, and the Navajo tribe in the past had attempted to develop training programs themselves or have others develop training programs, but they didn't go anywhere. So, this program is successful because of the partnership that you're talking about and direct linkage to the apprenticeship programs in that four-state area out there. The training is directly keyed to what it takes to enter into apprenticeship and be successful once they get into apprenticeship.

Getting to your first point, certainly we have heard the criticism that minorities who are recruited and prepared, who might receive some institutional pre-apprenticeship training never get into apprenticeship. We don't agree that it's been as bad as it's been projected. Back in the early 1960s, less than 2 percent of the apprenticeships in the country were members of minority groups. In the building and construction trades today, it's 20 percent, and we don't think there's any other industry that can say there's been that kind of progress, and it's directly indicative of the kind of commitment that the labor unions have made through affirmative action, through the apprenticeship outreach program, through pre-apprenticeship training, and the fact of the matter is that there are only a limited number of apprenticeship openings. So, we don't agree with the critism. That doesn't mean that the job has been totally done. We're still working at it.

CHAIRPERSON MARTIN: I don't want to prolong this, but I would like to ask Mr. Wilkinson his reaction to the Navajo program based on Mr. Arnold's testimony. Is that something Youthwork should be involved in? Are there elements of things in there that we should be involved in? That may be an unfair question and if you don't want to answer it, that's all right.

MR. WILKINSON: I'm not that familiar with the program generally. The only criticism I might have is that the apprenticeship program, and there are many of them going on the Navajo reservation, might be training people in skills for which there might not be any jobs. Generally, on Indian land there's about one-third of the nation's low-sulfur stripable coal and about 65 percent of the nation's known uranium supplies, and these may or may not be developed, depending on the sort of struggle that's going on within the tribes about how this will affect the future of Indian people. Even if they are developed, a lot of the mining operations will be very short-lived, will be anywhere from five to 25 years, and so, if you have people trained in these sort of things and then when the mining and those kinds of activities disappear and you have no other economic base, then the people who are making seven dollars an hour will all of a sudden be back to welfare and making nothing. So you have to review these programs in some kind of context and you have to view as to where the tribe is going economically. Also, there's the question whether the tribes really want to have the unions on the reservation as a political force, because if the unions were there, they would be the most powerful force on the reservation.

I might say generally about Indian young people that I think the stress ought to be put on a lot of conservation activities and jobs created along that line, and jobs created with renewable resources, such as agriculture, some involvement in appropriate technology, and the building up of small entrepreneurships. I think that on most reservations, particularly the Navajo, that will be the basis for any sort of economy in the future.

MS. FRANCO: This isn't a question. It's a request to Mr. Wilkinson. One of the most disappointing things for me personally as a member of this board was the small number of native American applicants that we received in the last year. I would like to ask you to make every effort that you can to let Indian groups know that this competition is coming up and we very much want to do a better job of reaching Indian groups, and I know the other members of the board agree with me. So, any help that you or others can give would be very much appreciated.

MR. WILKINSON: Right

CHAIRPERSON MARTIN: I'd like to thank you gentlemen and say that we appreciate your staying. On the board of Youthwork we do have some tough discussions because we are trying to sort out some issues and you have been very helpful to us.

Thank you.

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REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE:

HANDICAPPED YOUTH

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REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE:

HANDICAPPED YOUTH

INTRODUCTION

The Task

This literature search and analysis has been prepared in response to the task assigned to the contractor by Youthwork Incorporated of Washington, D.C. to assess and review material related to vocational education, training and employment for handicapped youth. The focus of this report centers around barriers which disabled youth must overcome in the transition from school to gainful unsubsidized employment. A set of policy issues prepared by Youthwork, Inc. setting forth what its staff and advisors consider the most salient and current concerns in the focal area has been addressed. These issues center around 1) interagency and intersystem coordination and collaboration; 2) the effects of the workskills acquired during training on the long term employability of the student, and potential for unsubsidized employment in the private as against public sector; 3) the relationship of family support services to the participation of the student in an education and training program; 4) incentives for private sector employees which might increase their participation in training and employment of the disabled young people, thus increasing the entry of handicapped youth into the labor market; 5) a discussion of the various types of individualized program plans for handicapped youth currently in vogue with emphasis on those with vocational objectives; 6) efforts in personal, group or client advocacy for the handicapped; 7) needs and strategies for modifications, environmental accessability of programs and facilities, and job restructuring in education, training and employment; 8) assessment of the disabled as related to career development.

The Methods Used

This report is based on a literature search in which several hundred items were searched, with over 100 read and analyzed--all relating to the educational, vocational and occupational training, rehabilitation, placement, and employment of handicapped individuals. The focus of the search and review was on transition of handicapped youth from school to work.

The content of the report is specifically directed at administrators or representatives who are implementing the programs of the Comprehensive Training and Employment Act and similar programs that relate to handicapped youth. Its purpose is to help them gain knowledge and insights into the efforts to help the handicapped become participants in the mainstream of society. The report describes some of the early voluntary efforts of the social and educational agencies; it gives indepth analysis of the Congressional legislation which provides the basis for the present thrust to help the handicapped become more independent contributing members of society; it highlights the various administrative agencies and presents their preceived responsibilities in administering the various aspects of the programs for which they are responsible. It describes some of the innovations as well as exemplary programs and identified flagrant gaps and deficiencies in the service delivery systems. It also describes some of the current research in process. The report attempts to address the major issues which CETA administrators presently face in planning and administering its programs.

The materials were collected from a variety of sources--from libraries, computerized information systems, as well as personal interviews with dozens of persons. Some of the sources are the CEC ERIC for the Handicapped, the Ohio State University ERIC for Vocational Education, the NARIC (National Rehabilitation Information Center): The Department of Labor ETA Resource Clearing House; the Library of Congress Research and Information Center; the U.S. office of Education Library; The D.C. Public Library; the George Washington University Regional Resource Center. Research material was collected from the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, the Vocation Rehabilitation Administration; the National Institute of Education, the Department of Labor Manpower and Training Administration. Over fifty personal interviews or contacts were made with persons in key agencies and organizations, to mention a few--the National Association of State Directors of Special Education, the Council for Exceptional Children, the National Information Center for Handicapped Children, the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, the Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, the Rehabilitation Services Administration, The President's Committee on Mental Retardation, the National Alliance of Business, the C. & P. Telephone Company; the Xerox Corporation, and others.

After reading and analyzing the materials, salient information has been presented, analyzed and summarized: issues addressed and recommendations made as to action steps that CETA administrators or representatives could make as their new programs are implemented. A heavy emphasis has been placed upon various legislative programs related to vocational education, job-training, rehabilitation, job-placement and employment of handicapped youth. These programs have been legislated in response to society's perception of needs and constitutional rights for all mankind. It is hoped that the compilation of legislative information will assist program implementors to find mechanisms for interprogram collaboration which will help handicapped youth succeed in developing employable skills for meaningful jobs.

We must admit that today's thrust of accommodating students with mental and physical disabilities to the mainstream society is a challenge. The problems are multifaceted, when, for example with so many agencies and disciplines involved we try to help such individuals make a reasonable transition from school to the world of work. In addition to career and vocational education, counseling, occupational training, rehabilitation, family and supportive services, matching individuals to available jobs, coping with accessibility and transportation difficulties, we must deal with the greatest barrier of all-namely negative attitudes toward disabled persons. These attitudes are even manifested at times by the very people who must be directly involved in their training--regular teachers and vocational educators who are not used to working with handicapped and above all potential employers. This report has tried to shed some positive light on dealing with each of these issues so that CETA program implementors can go forth with determination and commitment in finding innovative ways of successfully carrying out the legislative mandates for developing programs which insure qualified handicapped acceptance in the mainstream of employment where they can serve in meaningful jobs.

ABBREVIATIONS

ANSI	American National Standards Institute
BEH	Bureau of Education for the Handicapped
BOAC	Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education
CETA	Comprehensive Employment and Training Administration
CSAVR	Council of State Administrators of Vocational Rehabilitation
DDA	Developmental Disabilities Act
DD	Developmental Disabilities
DOL	Department of Labor
EHA	Education of all Handicapped Act
ES	Employment Service
ERIC	Educational Resource and Information Center
ETA	Employment and Training Administration
HEW	Department of Health, Education and Welfare
IEP	Individualized Education Program
IRS	Internal Revenue Service
IVP	Individualized Vocational Plan
IWRP	Individualized Written Rehabilitation Plan
MTA	Manpower and Training Administration
MTI	Manpower Training Institute
NASDE	National Association of State Directors of Special Education
NASDVE	National Association of State Directors of Vocational Education
NIMH	National Institute of Mental Health
OE	Office of Education
OFCCP	Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs
PARC	Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Citizens
PCEH	President's Committee on Employ the Handicapped
RA	Rehabilitation Administration
RRRI	Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute
RSA	Rehabilitation Services Administration
SSSI	Social Security Supplimentary Income
TJTC	Targeted Jobs Tax Credit
VA	Veterans Administration
VE	Vocational Education
VR	Vocational Rehabilitation

CHAPTER I

LEGISLATIVE BACKGROUND

A national concern for helping handicapped individuals develop to their maximum potential and participate in mainstream society has resulted in the passage of a number of federal laws relating to education including vocational education, occupational training, vocational rehabilitation and employment of the handicapped. This has been an effort on the part of the various Congresses to provide incentive to the States and local communities to place a higher priority on expanding and improving programs for the handicapped persons. These programs are aimed at helping disabled persons develop capabilities and skills which will give them opportunities for productive lives. The laws are based on the premise that if given adequate services with appropriate adaptations many handicapped can be given equal opportunity to function in the mainstream of life as non-handicapped. Some of these laws and regulations relating to vocational education, training, rehabilitation, and employment are highlighted below.

Preschool, Elementary and Secondary Education

The Education of the Handicapped Act, Part B, as amended by the Education of All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (EHA), P.L. 94-142 applies to children and youth from birth through age 21. The term "handicapped children" is defined in this Act as those children who are evaluated as being "mentally retarded; hard-of-hearing; deaf; speech impaired; visually handicapped; seriously emotionally disturbed; orthopedically impaired; or other health impaired children or children with specific learning disabilities who because of those impairments need special education or related services." Exact legal definitions of each disability are contained in the Act's Regulations.

As a result of years of interest in problems of the handicapped, State agencies as well as local public and private agencies developed a variety of programs and facilities to serve this group. In the early part of the century services to handicapped were motivated by compassion. The efforts have now been transformed to social obligations in which the handicapped are entitled to the same rights to participate in activities of mainstream society as non-handicapped. Court decrees and legislative enactments are now mandating that handicapped be assured educational opportunity in the least restrictive environments, that facilities and programs be made accessible through reasonable modifications to them, that the handicapped have vocational opportunity and that discrimination against qualified handicapped solely on the basis of the handicapped be prohibited in areas of employment, admission to higher education and other programs and activities.

The EHA contains the following principles:

1) a free and appropriate public education should be available for all handicapped children and youth between the ages of 3 and 21. (If there are inconsistencies, State law prevails).

2) the rights of the handicapped children and their parents should be protected;

3) education should be provided to all handicapped children through federal assistance to states, local or other public agencies;

4) there should be assurances of effectiveness of programs in the least restrictive environment and due process for parents and children.

Under the full educational opportunity goal, the legislation specifically states that "State and Local educational agencies shall take steps to insure that handicapped children have available to them the variety of programs and services available to non-handicapped children. . .industrial arts, home economics, and vocational education."

The law provides that for each child an individualized education plan (IEP) be carefully designed, implemented and reviewed annually. In developing the IEP, cooperative planning must take place by the teacher, the psychologist, other educational and supportive staff from public and private agencies who work with the child, and the parents.

The I.E.P.'s must also "include a statement of educational performance including academic achievement. .prevocational and vocational skills."

Among the procedural safeguards included in the Act is the use of nondiscriminatory testing and evaluation procedures and confidentiality of information.

Each State in its annual State Plan for EHA must insure that funds received under the Vocational Education Act Amendments of 1976 are consistent with the goal of providing a free and appropriate public education the "least restrictive" environment. Handicapped students enrolled in regular as well as in special vocational schools or classes are also required to have an IEP. Thus it is clear although there are two Acts, one for preschool, elementary and secondary education and the other for vocational education which are administered under different administrators that Congress intended for close integration at the operational level with individual handicapped students.

Vocational Education

The Vocational Education Act of 1963, which was amended by Title II of the Education Amendments of 1976, (P.L. 94-482), made a major change to vocational education by focusing on preparing all students for employment rather than training a few selected students for specific vocational training areas as had been the pattern up to that time. The concept contained in the new legislation was that all students including handicapped should have an opportunity for being prepared for employment before completing secondary education. The Education Amenements also introduced the idea of career education which is a broad term meaning education for life, with vocational education being but one component of career education. Donn Brolin has defined career education in his book, Life Centered Carreer Education: A Competency Based Approach as "the process of systematically coordinating all school, family and community components together to facilitate each individual's potentials for economic, social and personal fulfillment."

Vocational education has been defined in the Vocational Education Act Amendments as well as in the EHA as: "an organized educational program directly related to preparing individuals for paid or unpaid employment, or for additional training for a career requiring other than a baccalaureat or advanced degree." It includes industrial arts, consumer and homemaking education.

To be eligible for funds under the Vocational Education Act each State must develop and submit a five year "State Plan" in accordance with procedures set forth in the regulations. A number of sections of the plan must include programs, services and activities for the handicapped and must be developed in concert with individuals representing the needs of the handicapped.

The law was passed to strengthen the ability of States to provide vocational education to groups for whom the need was deemed most acute such as the handicapped and disadvantaged. In the Act Congress mandates a relationship between the vocational education program and the implementation of the activities provided for under EHA, P.L. 94-142.

The State plan must show how each program will prepare students for employment and more specifically how the vocational program will fit into a student's individualized education program. The state plan must show how vocational education and special education under EHA will be coordinated.

Since the passage of 1963 Vocational Education Act the States have been required to spend at least ten percent of their basic State grant for vocational education and training programs for the handicapped. The 1976 Amendments continue the ten percent set aside but require fifty percent matching by State and local funds thereby earmarking a minimum of fifteen percent of the vocational funds for the handicapped. Because all students are now entitled to vocational education the fifteen percent may only be applied to the excess vocational costs of education for the handicapped students. The law states:

> "The State shall expend at least ten percent of the allotment under section 102(a) of the act for vocational education for handicapped persons . . . and shall use these funds to the maximum extent possible to assist handicapped persons to participate in regular educational programs."
>
> "Placement in a special education program is only to be considered if the handicapped condition adversely affects the student's chances for success in a regular vocational industrial arts,

> consumer, or homemaking education program, thus necessitating special educational assistance or a modified program."

> "Advisory councils must be established on both State and local levels. State Councils must include one or more individuals . . . who have special knowledge, experience or qualifications with respect to the specialized education needs of physically or mentally handicapped persons."

Vocational State plans should also meet the requirements of EHA and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 which prohibits discrimination on the basis of physical or mental handicaps in every federally assisted program or activity of the country.

The legislative history of vocational education indicates that federal assistance should serve as a catalyst to induce State education agencies and local education agencies to align priorities, programs and expenditures more closely to community and individual needs. In 1917 Congress passed the Smith-Hughs Act which encouraged the nation's schools to include preparing students for earning a living as an integral part of the education system. It focused on two important areas of the times--namely, vocational agriculture and home economics. Three decades later it encouraged the number of occupational categories adding distributive education, health occupations, consumer and homemaking, office occupations, technical education, trend and industrial occupations and industrial arts. In 1968 Amendments stressed the need for adapting training to the changing needs of the labor market and earmarked funds to guarantee that certain groups--postsecondary, disadvantaged and handicapped--would receive opportunities for training. Again in 1976, the Act reemphasized programs for the handicapped.

The Congress has now declared that VEA's purpore is to insure: ". . . that persons of all ages in all communities . . . will have ready access to vocational training or retraining which is of high quality, which is realistic in the light of actual anticipated opportunities for gainful employment, and which is suited to their needs, interests, and ability to benefit from such training." Specific groups for whom vocational education is intended under VEA are those in high school, in post secondary schools, or who have completed or discontinued their formal education and are preparing to enter the labor market, or who have already entered the labor market and need to upgrade their skills or learn new ones. It includes handicapped individuals in special or regular education.

Post Secondary and Higher Education

The legislation which is bringing about the greatest reform among postsecondary education and higher education institutions is undoubtedly Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act which requires that qualified handicapped applicants are not denied admission or subjected to discrimination in admission or recruitment because of a handicap. Under the Federal Regulations for Section 504 a qualified handicapped student is one who meets academic and technical standards required for admission to the institution. There must be no preadmission inquiry that requires a prospective student to reveal a handicapped condition. An institution's recruitment activities must be accessible to the handicapped and if special services are needed during recruitment such as interpreters it is the responsibility of the institution to provide these services. Another major reform relates to testing requirements which prohibits the use of any test as a criteria for admission if it will have disproportionate adverse effect on a handicapped person or any class of handicapped persons, unless previously validated as a predictor of success.

These education institutions must assure accessibility of programs and activities to the handicapped. Architectural barriers must be removed where the program is not made accessible by other means such as rescheduling classes to accessible buildings. Students with communication disabilities must be provided interpreters, if needed. Institutions must also make reasonable modifications in academic requirements, where necessary, to ensure full educational opportunity for handicapped students such as use of tape recorders or other aids, extension of time to complete course requirements.

Thus, as we enter the 80's an ever increasing number and percentage of handicapped students should be able to enroll and make satisfactory progress at these institutions. Other laws and legislative programs which have dramatically effected the increase of handicapped students on campus have been the Architectural Barriers Act requiring public facilities constructed with federal assistance to comply with the American National Standards Institute specifications which accommodate the handicapped, the Vocational Education Act which provides assistance to post secondary shcools; and the Higher Education Act, Title IV Student Special Services Program. In addition, the Vocational Rehabilitation Program has developed cooperative agreements with some of the post secondary vocational schools as well as provided their clients with special services.

Before the 1960's no post secondary education programs existed for the handicapped except Gallaudet College in Washington, D.C., a federally supported liberal arts college for the deaf which was created over 100 years ago. While this institution produced some very fine graduates, it did not offer deaf students many career opportunities. To offset this gap, Congress in 1965 enacted legislation for a National Technical Institute for the Deaf which has been granted to Rochester Institute of Technology in Rochester, New York.

With the implementation of the Architectural Barriers Act, many college facilities constructed during the college building boom of the 60's and 70's became accessible to the mobility impaired physically handicapped enabling such students who met entrance requirements to attend classes. Most notable among the early campus programs for the physically handicapped operated by the State University systems were the ones at the University of Illinois at Carbondale and the University of Kansas. Students in wheelchairs become a common site on their campuses.

During the early 70's the Bureau of Higher Education of the U.S. Office of Education under its authority from the Student Special Services Program was able to make grants to higher education and post secondary institutions including junior, community vocational and technical colleges for exemplary projects to assist physically handicapped students participate in post secondary education. This Program allowed expenditures for remedial programs, counseling and other special services on campus which could assist handicapped students to function at these institutions. Once the system was established it tended to become an on-going service of a college or university.

The Vocational Rehabilitation Program also supported some additional exemplary technical programs on various campuses to increase the vocational potential of deaf students. These exemplary projects which became prototypes for other regular post secondary schools were at California State University at Northridge; Delgado Vocational Technical Junior College in New Orleans, Louisiana; Seattle Central Community College, Seattle, Washington; and St. Paul Technical Vocational Institute, St. Paul, Minnesota.

The concept of post secondary education for the handicapped has now spread across the country. The College Guide for Students with Disabilities, a detailed directory of higher education services, programs, and facilities accessible to handicapped students in the United States, (Gollay and Bennett) based on a 1975-76 survey, lists over 500 higher educational institutions with some type of special services for the handicapped. In addition to architectural and program accessibility special services include interpreters, tutoring, note taking, electronic aids, video tapes, mobility orientation, braille libraries, braille typewriters, large type books, opticons, captioned films, personal counseling, vocational counseling, job-placement and follow up, vocational development services, job preparation seminars, and others.

Needless to say, many of the graduates have been placed in meaningful jobs in the private corporate sector, in various types of electronics, computer programming and photography. Some have entered professional jobs in counseling, teaching, law, laboratores, and the like.

The opportunity presents itself for additional cooperation among the related program administrators of Vocational Education, Vocational Rehabilitation, Comprehensive Employment and Training Programs, and to coordinate their efforts in providing career counseling and job placement to disabled students attending their schools. The work experiences gained through these programs if coordinated could be invaluable to the student. These program administrators can also play a joint role in encouraging handicapped high school students to qualify for admission to post secondary schools.

A new trend is for community colleges to offer continuing education to mentally retarded. A number of exemplary programs are appearing at post

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secondary institutions which prepare retarded individuals in skills they can use in their daily living activities and for jobs. The CETA Program could cooperate in this endeavor in a multi-funded project.

Vocational Rehabilitation

The Rehabilitation Act of 1973 which had been started in 1920 made some major revisions in the program. In 1973 Congress amended the law with a set of civil rights provisions which prohibited discrimination against a qualified handicapped person solely because of his handicap. The term handicapped individual is defined to mean "any individual who (A) has a physical or mental disability which for such individual constitutes or results in a substantial handicap to employment and (B) can reasonably be expected to benefit in terms of employability from vocational rehabilitation services. . ." These non-discriminatory provisions are contained in Section 501, 502, 503 and 504 of the Act. Under these provisions, handicapped individuals must have the same opportunity as non-handicapped for programs and services under federally assisted programs. It prohibits discrimination in employment, provides qualified handicapped with opportunities for career advancement, requires reasonable accommodations to barrier free facilities, to restructured job elements, to modified equipment, and for readers for the blind or interpreters for the deaf. It also provides for program accessibility and contains requirements relating to providing the handicapped children and youth with a free appropriate public education including vocational education.

In an omnibus bill in 1978, the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 along with the Development Disabilities Act (P.L. 94-143) was again amended. It extended the various vocational rehabilitation programs including the basic grant-in-aid to the States, research and training and special projects grant authorities, all programs previously authorized. It also included new programs designed to open up more employment opportunities for the disabled. The program entitled Community Service Employment Program provides full or part-time community employment to handicapped persons. Pilot projects will be funded which included training and subsistence payments during the training period, payment for reasonable work related experiences such as transportation, interpreter services and the like, placement services in unsubsidized jobs when federal assistance for the project terminates. The legislation also provides for a "Projects with Industry Program" for training and employment of handicapped in a realistic work setting, and establishes a new business opportunities program for handicapped persons.

The Vocational Rehabilitation Program is an outgrowth of the success of the rehabilitation of disabled veterans following World War I. In 1920 Congress passed the Vocational Rehabilitation Act-the Smith-Fess Act-which was a matching State grant program to provide vocational training, counseling and guidance, prosthetic appliances and job placement to physically disabled persons. This program proved to be a good start for civilian disabled but was limited in scope of services and did not apply to the mentally retarded. Prompted by the manpower needs of World War II in 1943 Congress passed P.L. 113, the Barden-Lafollette Act, which expanded those eligible for vocational rehabilitation to the mentally ill and mentally retarded, provided assistance to State agencies serving the blind, expanded the scope of services and liberalized the cost-sharing formula with the States. The 1954 Amendments radically altered the method of providing basic support to the States adjusting the cost-sharing formula to the per capita income and size of population in each State. In 1954 amendments provided funds to expand and improve workshops, facilities, program administration, research and training of professional personnel.

Employment and Training

The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act Amendments (P.L. 95-44, and P.L. 95-524) (CETA) contains legislation relating to the unemployed and underemployed. The handicapped population is recognized as a major portion of the unemployed and underemployed. CETA is a direct federal grant program to all States and cities, counties and combinations of local units with populations of 100,000 or more. There are over 400 State and local units, called "prime sponsors" which operate projects or contract with other groups to provide services.

CETA authorizes a range of services to assist unemployed or underemployed persons develop job skills and work potential; it provides public service job opportunities. Examples of services might include classroom and on-the-job training, work experience, subsidized jobs with public and private non-profit agencies, basic education, and support services like child care or health aids.

The 1978 CETA amendments included a series of provisions specific to the employment and training of handicapped. Section 306 of Title III of the Act authorizes the establishment of programs to train personnel to work with and assist the handicapped, and the establishment of administrative procedures to meet the special needs of handicapped persons receiving CETA services.

Under the CETA amendments of 1978, the term "handicapped individual" is defined to mean "any individual who has a physical or mental disability which for such individual constitutes or results in a substantial handicap to employment."

As a result of this legislation, more emphasis of the entire program is on the needs of the handicapped:

1. CETA prime sponsors are required to include in their master and annual plans descriptions of employment and training services to handicapped persons.
2. Prime sponsors must describe in the plans affirmative action steps for outreach, training, placement and advancement of handicapped persons in CETA, and provide statistical and descriptive information about its methodology for services to the handicapped.
3. The planning council and State employment and training councils are required to include a representative of the handicapped in their membership.
4. Discrimination on the basis of handicap is prohibited.
5. Prime sponsors are required to take steps to remove architectural barriers to employment of the handicapped.

The Youth Employment program authorized under CETA also gives more emphasis to the handicapped category which is a focal area of the demonstration projects. The Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Projects and the Youth Employment and Training Program include in their scope of community improvement activities the removal of architectural barriers in public facilities. The Job Corps Program which serves youth aged 14-22 provides a waiver of the maximum age for the handicapped persons. Summer Program for Economically Disadvantaged Youth (SPEDY) is also encouraged to include handicapped youth in its program. In addition, CETA funds are being used to hire disabled veterans to work in State Employment Service offices to assist disabled veterans in education, job training, and employment.

Related Programs

In addition to education, vocational rehabilitation, and employment, Congress in enacting a variety of pieces of legislation has singled out the special needs of the handicapped. There are now numerous programs benefitting the handicapped, including many social service and health related programs; programs specific to disability groups such as the blind, deaf or developmentally disabled; income maintenance programs; programs for disabled veterans; programs relating to barrier free environments for buildings, sidewalks, recreation areas, and parks. Special mention should be made of the provisions in the Housing and Community Development Act which specifies a number of housing provisions to benefit handicapped persons and the Social Security Act with its supplemental income provision for disabled persons, and above all the Elimination of Architectural Barriers Act of 1968 which set standards for accessibility to buildings and facilities that receive federal funds. Provision in the Transportation Act have been very important to the handicapped. The provision of all of these Acts assist the handicapped to gain more independence in participating in mainstream society and compliment the efforts of their education, training and employment programs.

Taken together all of the legislative programs are aimed at providing facilities and services as well as income, which will increase the independence of the handicapped in daily living and enhance their opportunity for participation in activities with the non-handicapped.

State Legislation

In the process of training young handicapped people and overcoming barriers in the transition of school to work, each of these programs must be in place and appropriately functioning at the State and community level. The Federal programs serve as incentives to State and local bodies to restructure the traditional programs, to blend State and local resources, to redefine goals and priorities, to accommodate the needs of handicapped youth, even though they might be severely disabled and give them their rightful place along with the non-handicapped members of their communities. The operation and implementation of major programs rests with State and local communities which must create a partnership with the federal administrations in assisting handicapped persons within their jurisdiction benefit to the maximum from federally assisted programs. Because each State along with its local government bodies has the major responsibility for programs and services provided to its residents, it will be well to examine examples of local practices in laws relating to the education and job preparation of handicapped youth.

Each State has passed its own set of laws relating to the education of its preschool, elementary, secondary, post-secondary, adult, college, university and has its own set of compulsory school attendance laws and higher education programs. While the operation of most of the education programs for children and youth is the responsibility of local boards of education, each State provides a proportion of its financing to the local school district for all children. In relation to the education of its handicapped children, it has been the custom of States to provide for much of the excess costs. These financial formulas vary from State to State. Each State has its own definitions of handicapped children and its own administrative system for special education as enacted in its statutes. Some States now specify vocational education and training for the handicapped students. The Michigan Law is an example of how vocational education for the handicapped is mandated by State Law. Under Michigan law handicapped persons are eligible for special education programs and services until age 25. Excerpts from the law follow:

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> "Special education programs and services as used in the act mean education and training programs designed for handicapped persons operated by local school districts, the Michigan school for the blind, the Michigan school for the deaf, department of mental health, department of social services or any combination thereof, and ancillary professional services for handicapped persons rendered by agencies approved by the State board of education." (Section 10, Act 198, Public Acts of 1971)
>
> "The programs provided shall include vocational training but do not have to include college or university legal academic programs." (Section 10, Act 198, Public Acts of 1971)

Summary and Conclusions

Vocational education and the preparation for employment for handicapped youth is influenced by a variety of recently enacted laws, at both federal and State levels. The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 as amended guarantees a free, appropriate education in the least restrictive environment to each handicapped child, ages 3 to 21. For those 3 to 5 or 18 to 21 the State must offer educational opportunities equal to those they offer to non-handicapped students of the same age. The law contains safeguards to protect the rights of the students and their families and provisions for due process if they feel their rights are violated. The Act specifically includes provision for vocational education for handicapped students. The Vocational Education Act of 1963 as amended defines vocational education as the preparation of individuals for paid or unpaid employment; and grants to the states to extend, improve, develop and maintain vocational education programs, ten percent of which must pay for the excess costs needed to include the handicapped in its vocational education programs. Five percent of the State's matching funds must also be used for the excess costs for serving the handicapped. The Rehabilitation Act of 1973 as amended also provides basic grants to the States for providing counseling and special services to handicapped individuals to prepare them for employment. Other legislative provisions benefitting the handicapped which related to vocational training, job preparation, employment, job placement, and independent living are the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act, the Higher Education Act, the Wagner Peyser Act relating to the Employment Service Programs, the Architectural Barriers Act, the Transportation Act, the Social Security Act and the Internal Revenue Act.

States are rapidly enacting legislation to implement or supplement the provisions of the federal laws.

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CHAPTER II

THE ISSUES

As one reviews and attempts to implement these pieces of legislation in the best interests of the handicapped and addresses the effort of transition of youth from school to employment, a number of policy issues come to mind:

1. What are the most effective forms of collaboration among employment, training, education and rehabilitation institutions in facilitating the school to work transition sequence?

   a) Are there any special collaborative efforts needed for vocational training and placement of handicapped youth at the post-secondary, college or university levels?

   b) What forms of collaboration and structural arrangements best serve handicapped young people in terms of placing them in unsubsidized jobs in the private sector after program completion?

2. How are the disabled person's various individual planning and assessment plans interrelated so that the in-school individualized plan will incorporate specific vocational planning objectives?

   a) How do these plans determine the special services the student receives?

   b) How do these plans help determine the type of progress the student is making?

3. What is the state of the art with reference to assessment and measurement of people with disabilities, particularly as it relates to vocational interests, aptitudes, work relevant attitudes, self-esteem and social efficacy?

4. What kinds of family support services for disabled young people seem to be most effective in facilitating the student's program objectives and strengthening the transition process into the employment?

5. What types of work training or job placement experiences seem to effect these long-term employability?

   a) Is there any difference between the relative long-term effects of skills acquired in the public sector as against the private sector job placement experience?

   b) Is student age a factor in terms of the skill-training and type of job placement experience and long-term employability?

6. Under what conditions is job restructuring a feasible procedure for disabled youth?

   a) What are some strategies and successful designs that can be incorporated in the education, training and employment programs to successfully restructure jobs for individuals with disabilities?

7. What incentives for private sector employers work best in inducing those employers to increase their involvement in the training and employment of disabled young people?

8. What form of participation by disabled individuals or by members of client or advocacy groups make effective components for projects designed to serve the needs of disabled young people?

In the pages that follow, the reader will find an indepth analysis of the state of the art at various levels of policy making which deals with these issues. The references at the conclusion of each section, the annotated bibliography, the comprehensive bibliography and other materials have been compiled in an effort to help the reader gain additional knowledge and insights. In some cases the writer has provided some discussion and offered suggestions. However, the area of education, and preparing handicapped youth for successful placement within the world of work is so complex, so multi-faceted, so fragmented as well as overlapping, has so many gaps and problems that easy solutions are not readily conceivable. A committment to finding and investing in solutions will be a major step forward as we enter the eighties; and perhaps within the decade society will have classified and initiated a viable system which assures gainful employment to qualified handicapped individuals. This paper is dedicated to a forward movement.

CHAPTER III

COORDINATION AND COLLABORATION

Need for Coordination

With so many pieces of legislation at the federal, State and local level requiring education, training, rehabilitation and support services, all directed at a disabled person's employability and productivity, there is indeed need for a viable system of interagency, interdisciplinary coordination and collaboration. Coordination is needed at each administrative level at which the program operates at the federal level which provides financial assistance and mandates certain criteria if the funding is to be given; at the State level which not only has funding responsibilities and State level criteria, but also a major responsibility for meeting quality standards; and finally at the project level where all segments must be brought together and the day by day activity put into operation. Coordination and collaboration in this field is not new in and of themselves; the bringing together of many-faceted efforts with mutually agreed upon goals and objectives is the present challenge.

Recognizing the need for a collaborative effort, Congress has written requirements for interagency coordination into the federal legislation. In order to effectively implement the coordinated effort in relation to CETA programs for handicapped youth, it would be well to review some of the recent efforts among federal program administrators in coordinating the efforts at education and training handicapped youth for productive employment.

Legislative Mandates for Coordination

The goal of the CETA youth employment program is the ultimate placement of young handicapped people in unsubsidized jobs of the labor market hopefully in the private sector. The legislation has been written with this objective in mind. CETA legislation recognizes that among the important steps to be taken to implement this objective is coordination with other programs. The CETA law requires any State seeking financial assistance under this Act to submit a Governor's coordination and special services plan to the Secretary of Labor. The Act calls for the plan to include

: coordination of employment, training, education, and related services by providers of such services;

: coordination of programs financed under the Wayne Peyser Act relating to employment security avoiding duplication of services;

: facilitating and fostering activities of the State Occupational Information Coordinating Committee established under the Vocational Act.

The Act further recognizes the need to relate the CETA program and the Education for Handicapped Act provisions, and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, stating in Section 306 of Title II ". . .there is need for people to provide the special supportive services and removal of architectural barriers required by these Acts."

Similarly in the regulations for the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968, there are specific requirements for cooperative arrangements with the public employment services, with state agencies responsible for the education of the handicapped, with other appropriate agencies and organizations, and institutions, and with other states. The guidelines for the implementation of these Amendments list more than thirty agencies and categories of organizations that would be appropriate subjects for cooperative agreements serving the handicapped.

Levels of Coordination

It must be emphasized that coordination takes place at many levels and within different functions of service. The literature reveals wealth and variety of efforts at coordination. The effectiveness of outcomes of these efforts seems to be directly proportional to the committment of the individuals and groups involved. Where bureaucracy becomes too inflexible or indifferent to the goals of the collaboration, the coordination effort tends to break down. Changes in key personnel or department administrative structure also tend to effect the success of the cooperative efforts.

Listed below are a few of the examples of coordinated efforts at various levels that relate to the vocational, education, training, and employment area.

: Federal interagency committee and task forces in behalf of special education, vocational education and training, and rehabilitation of the handicapped;

: Interdepartmental committees in behalf of children and youth;

: National and regional conferences

: Cooperative efforts among representatives of National organizations concerned with special education, vocational education, rehabilitation, employment

: Federal, State and local advisory councils

: State committees and task forces on interagency and interdisciplinary coordination

: Local governmental task forces and coordination committees

: Local public and private agency committees aimed at coordination

: Interdepartmental committees within the school department, vocational rehabilitation department, or employment agency

: Meetings of concerned personnel and citizens to develop a specific project

: Meetings of concerned staff and parents to discuss the total planning needs of a vocational education student

Studies on Coordination Relating to Vocational Education

Examples of the effectiveness of some of the above types of coordination relating to vocational education for the handicapped is found in the 1974 report of a comprehensive study by the Olympus Research Corporation. This study was an assessment of vocational education for the handicapped in which the investigators researched programs in twenty-five States through administrators of State level programs, studying 100 local projects within the sample States, and making case studies by interviewing students, their parents and employers. The overall findings in regard to the State level coordination efforts were not too encouraging. In its section on "Relationships with other agencies" the report states:

> The state level assessment indicated that although cooperative relationships existed between divisions of vocational education and divisions of special education--and in a few states, departments of vocational rehabilitation--in most states even these were relatively nonproductive, and for all practical purposes, relationships with other agencies were nonexistent.
>
> In Minnesota, a coordinator was jointly funded by vocational education and special education. The sole responsibility of the person occupying this position was to coordinate the activities of the two agencies in vocational programming for the handicapped. In eight other states, persons occupying other positions (either in vocational education or special education) were assigned the coordinating responsibility. In still another twelve states, the only relationship that existed between the two agencies was that special education was given the opportunity to review all proposals for vocational education projects for handicapped. In the remaining four states, there were no formal relationships between the two agencies.
>
> Formal relationships existed with departments of vocational rehabilitation in fourteen states. However, only seven of these agreements actually resulted in provision of services by vocational rehabilitation to students enrolled in Part V set-aside program. Among the services provided by vocational rehabilitation in the seven states were: placement, counseling, student evaluation, planning assistance, purchase of services not otherwise available, and occasional joint funding of projects. Agreements with vocational rehabilitation were nonexistent in eleven states.
>
> There appeared to be a lack of agreement among state programs officers as to whether vocational rehabilitation can legitimately provide supportive and additional services to secondary level handicapped vocational educational students. The most common

explanation for the lack of direct involvenment by vocational rehabilitation was that its client population is of an older age group. However, the fact that in at least seven states vocational rehabilitation did provide services to students in the set-aside program indicates that similar agreement could be reached in other states.

Only four states reported agreements with the employment service, and of these only two produced a significant amount of activity. Agreements with other agencies were so few as to be insignificant.

According to the many articles and reports on coordination, it appears that the most effective effort takes place at the local agency operational level where committed agency personnel get together to arrange a program for a handicapped individual or group of handicapped persons. These are cases where the anticipated outcomes are clearly defined and there is group participation in the cooperative strategies to be followed in achieving pre-agreed upon objectives. The literature review reveals a number of examples of these efforts. For example, the Olympus study reports that based on interviews with local special education administrators in 25 states, where 100 vocational education projects were studied, that in

> several states special education administrators made the point that, while special education input into vocational education programming was minimal or merely pro forma at the state level, a real working relationship was evolving at the local level. In its project visits (the investigators) found that working relationships did, indeed, usually exist at the local level. In fact, in several instances the two agencies were so closely intermingled in projects that it was nearly impossible to separate them for analytical purposes. Rarely was special education's presence not felt in local projects. This development was spurred in several states by legislation that requires the participation of special education personnel (among others) in the identification and classification of handicapped individuals, and in program planning. One vocational education program officer noted that such requirements of local levels of operation made closer relationships at state level inevitable.*

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*Olympus Final Report, Page 36

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Mechanisms for Coordination

Although there is much wishful thinking for collaboration as described above, it is apparent that local operators can coordinate and collaborate only to the extent that administrative policy within which they operate has designed mechanisms for coordination. This not only includes mechanisms for joint funding, but for policy making and accountability. In an effort where several independent individuals, groups or agencies combine for a larger expanded program in which each segment provides his area of expertise to achieve a large objective in behalf of a client, an overall administrative mechanism must be designed to determine the total effect of the joint effort and the next steps to be taken. This process often takes the form of a joint committee or planning council.

Much of the effort in coordination in relation to vocational training for the handicapped has been in the form of cooperative agreement among the respective agencies. This process has been tried in the past at various administrative levels with varying degrees of success. At the present time due in good part to the legislative mandates, there is again a strong trend toward implementation of inter-agency cooperative agreements. The next section will describe some of these efforts.

Cooperative Agreements

The literature review contains a number of efforts at cooperative agreements beginning in the 1960's. There seems to be evidence that where cooperative agreements were in effect between vocational rehabilitation and special education many students were trained in vocational competancies and successfully placed in jobs. However, the practice was not very widespread in school systems because vocational rehabilitation agencies usually worked with older clients or waited until young people had left school. It was basically through the initiative of a vocational rehabilitation agency that the early cooperative agreements with special education came into being. Consciencious vocational rehabilitation counselors responding to the pleas of dedicated special education teachers who wanted to help their students be trained for jobs worked together under formal agreements. The Vocational Rehabilitation

Act P.L. 93-112 required that the annual Vocational Rehabilitation State Plan contain a cooperative arrangement with certain named agencies including Veterans Administration, public welfare and public employment offices and "other Federal, State and local public agencies providing services related to the rehabilitation of handicapped individuals. . ." The benefits of cooperative agreements between special education and vocational rehabilitation began to appear in policy documents. In 1960 a publication of the President's Panel on Mental Retardation entitled A Proposed Program For National Action To Combat Mental Retardation recommended and provided guidelines for action to implement cooperative programs in rehabilitation and special education for the mentally retarded. In 1965 the State of Illinois issued Guidelines for Cooperative Vocational Services stating. . ."to secure meaningful service programs throughout the State, it is necessary to have both a well planned community special education program at the secondary level and a statewide structures approach with formal agreements between State departments and local school districts . . ."

Recognizing the need for cooperation in vocational services to the handicapped between rehabilitation, special education and vocational education, a joint circular was issued in 1967 and sent to the respective state directors by the Commissioner of the U.S. Office of Education and the administrator of the U.S. Social and Rehabilitation Service setting forth the need for cooperative planning between the three agencies at the state level responsible for administrating these programs. This began to sharpen the issue at the state and local level as the pressure was on for providing secondary education for handicapped students or keeping handicapped students in school beyond the age of 16.

The early efforts were in effect before the Education for All Handicapped Act was enacted during which time most handicapped students within the educational systems were in special classes. Few educational systems were required to keep handicapped beyond the age of 16 or 18, thus comparatively few secondary special education programs existed. During the 1960's and early 1970's secondary vocational training courses specific to the educable mentally retarded or physically handicapped came into being in many communities. Some of these were triggered by the efforts of local voluntary organizations such as affiliates of the Association for Retarded Citizens or United Cerebral Palsy Association or Society for Crippled Children and Adults. Some centers were developed by public schools. The State vocational rehabilitation agency usually cooperated in the work evaluation and training of these young people. Placement in ultimate employment usually depended upon the ingenuity of the staff who made arrangements with the business or industrial community to employ their trainees. A large number of graduates of these programs were placed in sheltered workshops. Many communities still follow these models today, although there is some evidence of changing patterns and vocational educational opportunities in less restrictive settings.

Major efforts are taking place at the federal level to implement cooperative agreements. In 1977 in order to assist the State in complying with the intent of the education and rehabilitation legislation, a joint memorandum from the Commissioner of Education and the Commissioner of the Rehabilitation Services was sent to State directors of the Vocational Rehabilitation Agencies and Chief State School officers on collaboration between education and vocational rehabilitation agencies. In this memorandum they recognized passed efforts for the agencies to cooperate, but emphasized the expanding responsibilities which have been given to states for serving handicapped persons under the EHA, VE amendments and Section 504 of the RA. The Commissioners suggested the pursuance of new approaches to collaboration through which it is neccessary to assure:

a) that handicapped persons eligible for services under the respective Acts receive all appropriate services for which they are eligible;

b) That all agencies administrating these Laws understand that eligibility under one Law should not in and of itself result in a denial of complimentary services under another of these

c) that Federal agencies involved are fully committed to aiding the State and local agencies engage in coordinated services delivery for handicapped persons.

The memorandum contained a series of examples and appropriate activities under each law for integrating education and vocational rehabilitation. It encouraged cooperative approaches for implementing the student's individualized education plan (IEP) along with the individualized written rehabilitation plan (IWRP). It also specified cooperative efforts relating to state plans, personnel preparation and joint programming.

In December of 1978 a second joint letter from the same Commissioners was sent to the State agencies requesting the States to initiate new interagency agreements among the respective agencies. Principal legislative references were cited which needed the attention of the States in developing cooperative agreements. The memorandum attempted to highlight and clarify concerns and controversial sections of these pieces of legislation so that cooperative arrangement could be more easily developed. The memorandum indicated the national collaborative effort which had been developing interagency collaborative efforts from the U.S. Office of Education, the Rehabilitation Services Administration, and representatives from three major national organizations--namely the Council of State Administrators of Vocational Rehabilitation (CSAVR), the National Association of State Directors of Special Education (NASDE) and the National Association of State Directors of Vocation Education (NASDE).

Office of Education (CE)/Rehabilitation Services Administration (RSA)

As a result of the formation of an OE/RSA Task Force including representatives from CSAVR, NASDE, and NASDVE a national workshop was held in February 1979 in Washington, D.C. for the development of comprehensive secondary programming and rehabilitation for the handicapped. The goal of this conference was to facilitate the delivery of appropriate comprehensive career, vocational, special education and rehabilitation services to the secondary and post-secondary handicapped individuals. The focus of the workshop was on state level coordination. A workshop document was prepared which stated, "The development and implementation of cooperative service agreements at the state level is the first step in facilitating interagency cooperation."

A position statement on Comprehensive Vocational Education for Handicapped Persons by the Commissioner of Education, Dr. Ernest L. Boyer, was included in the conference document. Dr. Boyer states

> We find them (young handicapped adults) ill prepared for a productive life outside the school environment. We are responsible for that because a large number of handicapped students leave the educational system without basic occupational skills. This lack of preparation contributes to the problem of unemployed handicapped adults,"

Dr. Boyer made a strong plea for formal cooperative agreements and committment by the agencies involved.

The workshop document also contains a description of technical assistance and resources available from the Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education (BOAE), the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (BEH), and the Rehabilitation Service Administration (RSA).

Other Examples of Cooperative Agreements

Other types of formal agreements being arranged which demonstrate viable mechanisms for meaningful interagency collaboration aimed at education, training, rehabilitation, and ultimate employment of handicapped persons. These activities are efforts not only to cooperate efforts at the service delivery, but include research and development endeavors and the preparation of interdisciplinary personnel. Although these programs may not necessarily be specific to the needs of youth, the outcomes of these activities would benefit persons of all ages, including youth. A few significant examples of these efforts are described below.

1. An interagency agreement between the National Institute of mental Health (NIMH) and the Rehabilitation Services Administration was issued on May 31, 1978. The agreement was prepared in conjunction and endorsed by the National Association of State Mental Health Program Directors, the National Council of Community Mental Health Centers and the Council of State Administrators of Vocational Rehabilitation. The purpose of this agreement is to set forth principles in guiding agencies to establish relationships and operational plans "on an effectively coordinated and integrated basis without duplication of effort."

2. On August 4, 1978 the NIMH and the RSA signed another joint agreement jointly funding the first RSA Research and Training Center for the rehabilitation of mentally handicapped individuals. In September 1979 Boston University, Sargent College of Allied Health Professions received the award to establish the Boston University Mental Health Research and Training Center. National problems in identifying and rehabilitating severely disabled persons who are handicapped as a result of mental health problems "will be identified collaboratively" by national, state and community mental health support programs. Emphasis will be placed in coordinated research and training activities "designed to develop the most effective personnel in programs for evaluating, counseling, vocational training, work placement, follow-along and community retention services for the mentally ill population."

3. HEW has made an award in October 1979 to the University of Wisconsin, Wisconsin Vocational Studies Center on vocational education models for linking agencies serving the handicapped. This project will concentrate on state agency linkages.

4. The Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute (RRRI) at the University of Denver's Center for Social Research and Development is concentrating on continual research in interagency linkages. The RRRI plans to conduct site visits to collect data on innovative linkage mechanisms, develop a conceptual framework/matrix for developing linkage strategies; establish a repository of information and training materials on inter-agency linkages and coordination. It also plans to provide technical assistance on coordination.

Barriers and Facilitators to Cooperative Action

The multifaceted aspects of coordination in the process of an integrated service delivery system for providing rehabilitation and training to the handicapped is succinctly described and discussed in a paper prepared by Edward C. Baumheier, Director of the RRRC in July 1979. The paper is entitled, Interagency Cooperation and Utilization of Similar Benefits In the Delivery of Vocational Rehabilitation Services. He discusses coordination from the focal point of the rehabilitation counselor, with "similar benefits" meaning services provided through a variety of different agencies. The paper offers mechanisms for coordination and alternative types of interagency linkages and cooperative arrangements in providing multi-agency services to handicapped. He identifies barriers as well as facilitators to cooperative actions. He lists some of the barriers as:

> "Inadequate understandings of other agencies services roles, operational procedures, organizational channels and proper points of staff contact in regard to client services;
>
> "insufficient communication among service delivery personnel and supervisors at the client level;
>
> "lack of interagency case planning, management or follow up;
>
> "inadequate interagency training in multiagency (plans) with multiproblem clients;
>
> "lack of administrative leadership and orientation toward cooperation at substate supervisory levels whose support and resource development are necessary;
>
> "lack of clearly defined interagency procedures, for example, in such areas as referral and information exchange;
>
> "differences in agency policies and philosophies;
>
> "different expectations of progress or success for clients;
>
> "perceived threats to agency autonomy."

Some of the facilitators listed include:

> "development of state agency capacity for comprehensive services planning;
>
> "top-level administrative commitment to the principles and practices of interagency cooperation, with such commitment clearly visible and credible to staff members throughout both agencies;
>
> "opportunities for professional workers to express their doubts and concerns about the cooperative program;
>
> "good experience in the actual implementation of joint programs and successful service delivery to clients;

> "legitimation of the interagency planning and programs by general purpose government;
>
> "frequent communication among participants in joint programs, especially at the supervisory and direct service providor levels;
>
> "continuous monitoring and evaluation, with appropriate mechanisms or solving problems as they arise;
>
> "allocation of sufficient staff time and other resources to the development and implementation of the joint program."

Linkage Mechanisms

Baumheier discusses some of the taxonomies of linkages applicable to interagency cooperation and coordination and presents a list of forty linkage mechanisms in the areas of policy management, administrative and service delivery linkage mechanisms. Based on research of linkage mechanisms, which includes case studies at sites in six states, a set of twenty conclusions are reached which impact on the development of cooperative relationships in the provision of services to the handicapped. He summarizes as follows:

> "In summary, the provision of a unified, comprehensive program of services for the handicapped, requires the development of a network delivery system based on interagency linkages established to assure access to the full array of services necessary for the clients under the purview of the VR system. Strong leadership and advocacy are essential to the establishment of an effective inter-agency system. Skillful negotiation and development of effective interagency agreements, including committment to specified levels of service activity are necessary for the acquisition of essential services within the context of scarce community resources. Effective case management, which is necessary to make the system operate optimally at the service delivery level, requires assurances, support, and incentives from higher organizational levels. In addition to skilled case management there exists a wide variety of interagency linkage mechanisms which may be applicable to the development of a cooperative system of services for the handicapped. In the final analysis the critical test of an effective multiagency service delivery system is whether the range of services necessary to service the client group under consideration is readily available and whether the application of these services achieve the client-oriented objectives effectively, efficiently, and economically. The goal must focus on achieving the maximum degree of independence of the agencies and services comprising the delivery system."

Coordination of CETA and Vocational Rehabilitation Services

During 1975 a training course (Course 305, Category III) was prepared and conducted by the Department of Labor's Manpower Training Institute (MTI), Region I in Boston, Massachusetts, on coordination of manpower training and vocational rehabilitation services. Recognizing the need to become knowledgeable of services available to the handicapped and avoid duplication, the major goal of the workshop was to inform both CETA prime sponsors and vocational rehabilitation agencies of their respective roles and responsbilities regarding the handicapped. Another goal was for CETA and VR to jointly determine what is required to effectively coordinate services on a local level so that the new result is an increase in services to eligible handicapped clients.

As a result of the workshop, its sponsors in cooperation with A.L. Nullum and Associates, a consulting firm which cooperated in conducting the workshop, prepared a comprehensive packet of the various materials used in the workshop for dissemination to participants and others. It contained summaries of the key presentations and discussions as well as reasons for implementation of activities. Some of the issues raised at the workshop included:

: problems associated with communication, coordination and cooperation

: implementing the 100% federal funding authority to VR under the Social Security Act amendments to rehabilitate persons on social security disability insurance who could become reemployed and no longer need social security payments

: expanding VR services

: providing VR services only if there is a reasonable expectation that this effort would result in a handicapped person's becoming employed.

: the requirement that the annual VR state plan contain cooperative agreements with other agencies serving the handicapped, thus creating a clear mandate for VR to cooperate with CETA;

: overcoming the optimism of the 1960's with its commitment to providing human services as against the realities of the 1970's with economic and energy problems which caused inflation and unemployment and in turn difficulties and constraints in effectively conducting human service programs.

Status of CETA

Before concluding this section on coordination, it might be well to take a look specifically at the current state of the art relating to employment by the Comprehensive Employment and Training program, rehabilitation, and special education. The coordination efforts of CETA with vocational rehabilitation and other agencies to promote jobs for the handicapped appear to be in its infancy. During the first fifteen months of CETA the enrollment rate of handicapped persons was four percent of all persons enrolled in Title I programs, less than three percent of those in public service jobs in Title II and IV, and for disabled vererans under Title I only one half of one percent. This low incidence is attributed to major problems prime sponsors face in identifying persons defined as handicapped and their lack of knowledge and experiences as to how to set up appropriate programs. Conditions vary in different geographic regions as to the extent to which handicapped persons have been served--i.e., rural vs. urban, or west vs. east.

Ron Jones' article entitled CETA's Problems with Hiring the Handicapped in WORKLIFE, May 1977, recommends that for purposes of identifying potential handicapped recipients that prime sponsors "work with welfare vocational rehabilitation, and other social service persons." In helping prime sponsors to deal with the many variations of employability problems of the handicapped the author proposes "assembling classes of similarly handicapped" or earmarking CETA slots specifically for handicapped, and undertaking "outreach efforts" to inform potential recipients of CETA services. The article emphasizes that expenses may be reduced through joint efforts with vocational rehabilitation and other social service agencies that can "provide supportive services needed to move handicapped workers into jobs." Other recommendations proposed by the author include a) using CETA public service employment slots "to hire workers who help promote interagency linkages for employment of the handicapped; b) developing cooperative programs between prime sponsors and other agencies to study CETA employment problems such as CETA dropouts."

Lack of Focus On Youthwork for Handicapped

The literature search revealed few articles outside of the special education field devoted to the cooperative efforts in the facilitation of school to work transition. Writings in the fields of rehabilitation and employment for the handicapped do not focus on youth needs but rather deal with general aspects of training and employing handicapped persons, including youth. The emphasis on preparing and training handicapped individuals for the general world of work and of non-discriminatory treatment is gaining access to training and employment programs is relatively new.

Numerous articles describe special education programs in cooperation with vocational rehabilitation counselors developing good models in school to work transition, but only in selected cases. The work experience vocational component of these training activities has been usually confined to developing secondary or occupational programs within the school system for the handicapped with simulated workshops in such areas as food preparation, laundry, clerical skills, and retailing. Another more common practice, however, was for the special school or teacher to arrange through the vocational rehabilitation counselor for the student to receive job training in the community sheltered workshop. Most of these workshops are sponsored by voluntary organizations such as Goodwill Industries, Associations for Retarded Citizens, Cerebral Palsy Associations, and arrangements are made for student training under purchase of service contracts by the Vocational Rehabilitation agency.

In regard to ultimate placement, many of these models provided for a placement specialist on the staff of the school or sheltered workshop who works with employers in both public and private sectors such as restaurant chains, laundry establishments, or business firms for ultimate placement of trainees in unsubsidized jobs. Many placement officers developed linkages with the community chambers of commerce, business and manufacturing associations, labor unions and civic organizations such as Kiwanis Clubs to enlist their cooperation in the placement efforts.

Summary and Conclusions

It is obvious that there is a tremendous amount of concern, attention, discussion, thought, efforts, and attempts at coordination and collaboration in servicing the needs of the handicapped. Coordination and collaboration is needed at many levels with a flexible horizontal flow of collaboration, up and down the administrative and policy making ladders, as well as a horizontal flow across different departments, agencies and disciplines. It is a complex, often puzzling and even frustrating process to blend goals, ideas, funds, staff programs in behalf of improving services and avoiding duplication of effort and resources.

Many successful efforts have been tried and there is evidence to indicate that up to now the most successful activities have been accomplished at the local operational level. However, it is noted that accompanying successful coordinated programs has been commitment from higher administrative levels. The consensus of feeling is that coordination and collaborative efforts are needed for vocational training and placement of handicapped youth at all levels of training, secondary, post-secondary, college or university. Up until recently the focal point for coordination of services for education, training and rehabilitation of youth has been with the rehabilitation agency, although there has been evidence of efforts by the education and employment training policy makers. Most of these formal efforts to date for young clients have been at the secondary level, as the college and university clients appear to fall into the general adult category of persons served by vocational rehabilitation counselors and are not singled out as such for coordinated interagency cooperative agreement.

A number of forms of collaboration and structural arrangements which have effectively served the interests of handicapped young people have been described, such as special in-school workshop training facilities and sheltered workshops. However, it is obvious that with the present emphasis on equal opportunity for the handicapped trainees to participate in programs with the non-handicapped and the creations of barrier free environments that we are beginning to see new models of interagency cooperative arrangements involving the private sector in the planning and implementation of these arrangements. Some of these newer trends will be discussed in the next sections of this report.

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CHAPTER IV

INDIVIDUALIZED PLANS

Legislating Individualized Planning

The concept of individualized planning for developing a course of action for a handicapped individual by professional personnel is not new. Teachers, therapists, and others have in the past developed prescriptive methods to meet what appeared to be the needs of their students or clients. This provided them with a basis for accountability to determine if the methods that they used were effective. For example, diagnostic-prescriptive methods have been used by special education teachers for the last several years. What is new at the present time is the fact that this type of approach to meeting the needs of the handicapped has been incorporated in various pieces of legislation, and the provision of this approach in the implementation of the law is a condition for receiving the funds. The laws for each program also tend to require that the individualized plan under one program be formulated in consulation with other programs, the purpose of which is to encourage joint planning in behalf of an individual handicapped person by recipients of various funding sources.

Let us examine some of these various legislative provisions for individualized plans. School administrations which are recipients of funds from the Education For All Handicapped Act (EHA) must arrange for the development of an individualized education plan (IEP) for each identified handicapped child, even if the child is placed in a class with non-handicapped children. The special education staff is responsible for the development of this plan. When the student enters the secondary level, he/she is entitled under the Vocational Education Act Amendments to an opportunity to be trained for an occupation. Thus the IEP at this level for a handicapped student must include plans for his/her career or vocation. The vocational education plan is referred to as the "IVP." The Vocational Rehabilitation Act Amendments require for each client served under the Act that there be developed an individualized written rehabilitation plan, (IWRP). In addition, under the provisions of Title VI, Section 903 of the 1978 Rehabilitation, Comprehensive

Services and Developmental Disabilities Act relating to "severely handicapped" individuals benefiting from this Title, that there be developed an individualized written program (IWP).

With this array of individualized plans, it behooves service delivery systems involved with the same students or clients to work as a team in the preparation of these plans. There must be a sharing of assessment materials, of involvement of the client and his or her parents or guardian when dealing with young people, and input from representatives of the discipline involved in the medical treatment or supportive service areas.

Several manuals have been prepared detailing the processes for preparing each of the plans. An analysis of the suggestions and explanations contained in some of these plans are expected to be formulated and to operate. Under the requirement for an IEP the law states that each local agency shall insure that an IEP is provided for each handicapped student receiving special education. It must be reviewed and if approved revised annually. The special education administrator is responsible for contacting parents about the necessity of an IEP, arranging for meetings of appropriate participants, planning the contents of the IEP, insuring the inclusion of a vocational education component in the plan when student is ready for vocational education, insuring input in the IEP from persons from various agencies providing supportive services. As a result of the IEP approach placement of the student is determined and signatures of parents are obtained.

The flexibility of the IEP process makes it possible for advanced planning to take place prior to the final IEP meeting and obtaining pertinent information from the various disciplines and agencies working with the student. The local educational agency needs to develop policies which assure the maximum participation of these groups. The law (P.L. 94-142) requires the following persons to participate in the official meeting for developing, reviewing or revising a student's IEP.

1) A qualified representative of the local education agency's special education department other than the student's teacher;

2) The student's teacher; (One or more teachers may be designated when a student has more than one teacher)

3) One or both of the student's parents (A meeting may be held without a parent if attempts to involve one has been unsuccessful and records maintained for arranging the meetings at a mutually agreed upon time and place)

4) The student, when appropriate;

5) Other individuals at the discretion of the parent or agency.

The content of the IEP should indicate the degree to which the student can participate in regular vocational education and the special or modified vocational education program he/she requires. Some of the major IEP components required by P.L. 94-142 are:

1) Present level of student's education performance

2) Annual goals and short term instructional objectives

3) Special education and related services to be provided and the extent to which student will be able to participate in regular educational programs;

4) An annual evaluation indicating the extent to which instructional objectives are achieved.

Several models have been developed for the writing of IEP's. For example, the model proposed by the National Association of State Directors of Special Education suggests that there be at least two distinct levels of IEP development, 1) a total service plan, and 2) the individual implementation plan. The total service plan includes areas of educational need and present level of performance, long range goals and annual goals, recommended placement, support services, and personnel responsible for IEP implementation. The implementation plan includes instructional objectives, methods and materials to be used, lesson plans and student evaluations, instruction tasks and other designs and devices used by the teacher.

Vocational Education Planning

The Vocational Education Act requires the State Education Agency to insure that funds for vocational programs for the handicapped parallel the State Plan submitted under EHA and that each handicapped student's vocational education program be planned and coordinated as part of his/her IEP developed under the EHA. Thus means that the vocational education teacher has the responsibility to define those activities the handicapped student will be participating in and identify the support services needed to carry out those activities in the student's regular vocational education program. The vocational education component should include modifications adaptations or instruction and equipment and supportive or related services that are necessary for the student's participation in vocational education. Key personnel who have information concerning the student's vocational education interests, aptitudes and potential career capabilities could be contacted for the vocational planning. This could include the vocational education supervisor, the vocational evaluator, specialists involved in vocational assessment as well as any vocational teacher to whom the student would be assigned.

The National Center for Research in Vocational Education at Ohio State University has prepared a manual describing the processes through which vocational educators have input into the IEP development and implementation.

The Individualized Written Rehabilitation Plan (IWRP)

The individualized written rehabilitation plan (IWRP) is a plan required under the vocational rehabilitation services and requires parent or guardian involvement and agreement to the plan. Under the Vocational Rehabilitational Act as amended a handicapped individual is defined as "any individual who has a physical or mental disability which for such individual constitutes or results in a substantial handicap to employment and can reasonably be expected to benefit in terms of employability from vocational rehabilitation provided pursuant to Titles I and III of the Act." This definition provides the basis for eligibility for vocational rehabilitation services. There is a list of specific services which can be provided such as an evaluation of rehabilitation potential, counseling and guidance including follow-up after placement, vocational and training services necessary for adjustment to training, certain types of physical and mental restorative systems, some maintenance, interpreter services for deaf and reader services for blind, occupational licenses, tools and initial supplies, transportation for vocational rehabilitation telecommunications and other technical aids.

The IWP must include a time table and a schedule of services to be provided. Beyond the evaluation process, services can only be provided when there is a reasonable expectation that these services would result in a handicapped individual becoming suitably employed based on an agreed upon judgement by the handicapped individual and rehabilitation counselor. When this agreement is reached the kinds of services to be provided with time tables are developed for the IWRP.

Some of the services are provided directly by the rehabilitation agency, some are purchased and some secured by entering into cooperative agreements with other agencies. Under a financial needs test, the extent to which the State vocational agency provides full or partial payment for purchased services is related to the financial need of the client.

The Office of Education/Rehabilitation Services Administration On Cooperative Planning

With the development of the OE/RSA Task Force on cooperative planning in the area of special education, vocational education and vocational rehabilitation services, a close examination is being made of the individualized planning processes required by federal laws and regulations. Based on this activity we can expect that there will soon be clarification and refinement of this practice. It is anticipated that cooperative monitoring of IEP's, IVPs and IWRP's and possibly IHP's (individual habilitation plans) will be developed. The mechanisms for cooperative monitoring of these plans also would be developed. The Task Force has already suggested that where there is a duplication or overlapping of services, that the State through its agreements will be responsible for indicating which agency will have primary responsibility for service delivery and under which specific circumstances.

The Developmental Disabilities Individual Habilitation Plan (IHP)

Another related program which requires an individualized plan is the Developmental Disabilities Act Program (DDA). Under this Act the term "developmental disability" means "a severe, chronic disability which is attributable to a mental or physical impairment or combination of mental and physical impairments which is manifested before age 22; which is likely to continue indefinitely; which results in substantial functional limitations in certain specified areas; which reflects the need for lifelong, individually planned services." The definition of "services for the developmentally disabled" includes four priority services: case management services, child development services, alternative community living arrangement services, and nonvocational social-development services. The law requires that for each person receiving services funded under the DD program, that there be an individualized habilitat plan (IHP). This is a written agreement between a disabled person and a service provided in which the plan sets forth a prescription for a program which is tailored to an individual's need. It defines mutual goals and objectives of the service program and the strategies for attaining these goals. It states how multiple services are expected to be coordinated and who will be responsible for implementing and coordinating the service plan.

Other Individual Plans

This concept of requiring service agencies to specify in writing how programs will be tailored to meet individual needs is included in several other major Federal programs which serve the handicapped including Title XX Social Service Program and Title XVI of the Supplemental Security Income Child Referral Program of the Social Security Act.

Issues Relating To Coordinating Individualized Planning

In each of these plans there are mechanisms for interrelationships when a student is benefiting from more than one program. The exact administrative procedures for coordinating these plans are best left to the agencies providing the services. However, as stated earlier in this report, administrative planning needs to take place at higher administrative levels where appropriate guidelines can be provided to the agencies which benefit from the funding sources.

During the period when the student is enrolled in school, the special education department has been delegated the responsibility for including vocational education as part of the IEP. It would seem logical that under these conditions the focal point for coordination of the vocational, training and employment planning rest with the educational agency. This arrangement could even apply to a CETA sponsored education and training program that needs an agreement with the school system to provide academic credit for work completed under the CETA project. The special education agency could still be responsible for coordinating the student's IEP including the vocational program being offered by the CETA funding agency. There may be cases, however, when the school system is not involved with the youth's vocational program, especially in those instances where a student has finished secondary school. In such instances the CETA sponsor could work out the individualized plan (IWRP) in concert with the vocational rehabilitation agency.

Once the educational, vocational education, and the employment training programs are developed with the supportive services specified both on a long range and short term plans within a time frame, then it is possible to evaluate at regular intervals whether or not the various education and supportive services programs are sufficiently effective. Just as the team approach is needed to develop the plan, so the team approach is needed again to evaluate at specific intervals the effectiveness of the various segments of the various segments of the plan.

Assessment for Planning

Several of the references and bibliographic materials contain specific guidelines for developing individualized plans. The planning must be based on assessment. Since the advent of phychological testing in the beginning of this century, many tests have been developed to test student competencies and state of readiness, including individual and group intelligence tests, achievement tests, differential aptitude tests, vocational interest tests and others. Most school systems maintain cumulative records on students progress and achievement and record the results of many of these tests. Teacher observation has also been a major factor in student assessment and determination of need at any given time.

During the present period, testing is undergoing close scrutiny. Misuse of tests by some professional persons and what appears to be inappropriateness of tests based on cultural differences have brought about distrust of tests. Biases against handicapped persons cause them to be inappropriately labeled. As a result there are new approaches to needs assessment. One of the alternatives being advocated is direct observation of student performance on relevant tasks in a systematic standardized manner. Through a competency based curriculum, a student is compared with himself instead of being measured against others. On a compentency based rating scale a student's performance is measured against a given set of tasks, and his need is determined at the point where he will benefit from further training. It is this type of needs assessment which can be the basis for IEP. In addition, a handicapped student can be measured for the level of physical competency in performing certain tasks as well as for emotional maturity. The vocational planning determines which additional supportive services as well as modifications to programming is needed to assist the student in achieving vocational performance objectives. Through this type of assessment, planning and periodic evaluation, a student can be expected to progress toward vocational objectives.

Summary and Conclusions

Legislative programs enacted by Congress have included the concept of requiring written individualized plans as a basis for providing service under these programs to handicapped individuals. Because of the multiservice approach of providing for the needs of a handicapped individual, whereby he may benefit from more than one of these programs, it is essential that state and local communities develop a means of working as a team in developing and implementing these plans. Parents are invited to be part of the planning process for these plans and are required to agree to the plan. The vocational plans should be based on appropriate assessment of the pupil's interest and current level of competencies. The newer approaches for developing vocational skills advocate a competency based curriculum in which the program incorporates a sequential set of expected tasks to be mastered. The plans include the supportive services and program modifications needed to make it possible for the handicapped student to function adequately in relation to the expected tasks. In evaluating performance, the current trend is for student's progress to be measured against his own accomplishments rather than against a set of standard set requirements.

If handicapped youth are to be trained for employment and hopefully appropriately placed in unsubsidized jobs in the private sector, prime sponsors must be very alert to the individualized planning process. They or their program representatives must be intimately involved in the development of these plans with the special education personnel or vocational rehabilitation counselors. Prime sponsor agencies need to sponsor training programs through which job placement and employment specialists receive training in the individualized planning process for handicapped clients and develop their roles in the integrated planning process.

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CHAPTER V

VOCATIONAL ASSESSMENT

The Developmental Life-span Approach

With today's trend directed at a life span approach to career development, vocational assessment can not be isolated from the total developmental process of a student. The vocational assessment system contains measurements which relate to the individual's life span which begins in childhood and continues into an individual's productive years. Thus any assessment material should relate to the level of development of a person at various stages of his/her vocational readiness. In order to examine the field of vocational assessment and measurement, one must first conceptualize a set of growth or development phases related to career development.

For purposes of education and training there are four major phases in career development, namely the prevocational phase, the vocational education and training phase, the job or production realization phase and the career enhancement phase. Although there is some overlapping, the proponents of the developmental approach believe in a sequential growth process as an individual progresses from phase to phase requiring that certain competencies be acquired before he/she moves to readiness for the next step. Vocational assessment/measurement cuts across each of these phases.

In order to disucss the issues of vocational interests, vocational aptitudes, work relevant attitudes, self esteem and social efficacy it is important to understand the importance of viewing career education (including vocational education) as areas related to growth and development. These characteristics as manifested in older students have been influenced by the combination of experiences and environments to which an individual has been exposed during formative years. Thus any assessment (especially if it yields a low rating) not only determines the level of maturity in these behavioral areas but should attempt to identify the environmental or experiential condition which led to these behaviors.

The Prevocational Phase

During the prevocational phase the student is finding out what kinds of tasks he/she can perform, learning about the interdependence of occupations within society, developing a career identity, learning to use tools, learning about rewards for tasks accomplished including the relationship of money to certain tasks, learning to take directions, understanding the relationship of the task to the authority figure, developing attitudes in relation to the world of work, to mention a few. During the younger years there will be a lot of fantasizing and pretending relating to these areas, but as the child develops he/she will gain deeper insights and during the secondary school level will begin to acquire knowledge and understandings about the meaning of work. Several curriculum models of prevocational development are presented in the literature which can be obtained from the Center for Vocational Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

The importance of the school curriculum in addressing these matters during the elementary level should not be underestimated. It is especially important for handicapped children, whether mainstreamed or not, to be exposed to prevocational training as many of these children are lacking in both experience and environmental stimulation which assures their maximum level of growth during the prevocational phase. A characteristic of handicapped young persons is that they will have had few of the work-related and social experiences that nondisabled children and adolescents have had. There is a tendency for their families and even some school personnel to have overprotected and sheltered them. Thus they are immature, lacking in selfconfidence, and fantasize about career goals.

With the help of the guidance counselor, the school curriculum needs to be adapted for these deficiencies by assessing the child's level of development, widening his experiential base, increasing his competencies in prevocational skills and counseling the families. This, in turn, will help the child build up his repertoire of successful work related activities, strengthen his/her self-confidence and self-esteem.

During the secondary level, the prevocational area should be thoroughly assessed before plunging into formal vocational education, and remedial steps should be taken to address major deficiencies.

Several performance scales have been developed including Life Centered Career Education: A Competency Based Approach, (Brolin-78) Missouri, Columbia, Missouri; and Illinois State University Informal Vocational Learner-Behavior-Task Rating Scale, (Hemingway-75) Illinois Division of Vocational and Technical Education, Springfield, Illinois.

The Vocational Education and Training Phase

This is the phase when the student is exploring various occupations and developing skills necessary to fit him/her for a gainful occupation. Training may be short term or may stretch over several years. It should usually begin in the second or third year of secondary school (for all students including the disabled) and may progress into post-secondary and higher education. It is desirable to develop a systematic approach to vocational assessment based on the sequential development of the individual in the major growth areas--intellectual, physical, emotional, personal and social and vocational; or in Brolin's terms: based on the levels of competency in academic skills, daily living skills, personal and social skills and occupational skills.

The counseling and guidance program becomes crucial in assessing the student's level of competency, aptitudes, interest and in steering him/her into appropriate courses and training that will be compatible with future capabilities and goals. For handicapped persons, this phase becomes vitally important. Foster, however, warns that while generally the intellectual, physical, and emotional characteristics of a student should be considered in selecting occupations, it is equally important for the counselor to be familiar with and consider the specific occupational placement possibilities for individual special needs students in the community in which the student expects to work (P. 245) Foster also warns that physically disabled persons display as wide a variety of aptitudes, interests and life-style preferences as do nondisabled persons. She also cautions against the use of prepared lists of occupations which seem appropriate for the handicapped but may engender stereotyping. In some cases where youngsters display unrealistic goals a combination of individualized counseling and reality testing in vocational laboratory or work site can broaden the horizon of the more severely disabled student who underestimates his/her potential. Even limited success can be a powerful motivating factor (Foster, P. 248) "The reality-testing approach, however, is not always effective. Attitudes do not change easily, and reality experiences may even create resistance to change, rather than effect change (Patterson, 1963). Unrealistic high or low goals may be symptomatic of other personal adjustment problems." Thus personal adjustment counseling becomes a necessary adjunct to the career guidance process. (Foster, p. 249)

In guiding handicapped students toward career goals based on assessment, it is always important to remember that the right of self-determination by the student cannot be overlooked. The guidance process can point out the pros and cons of pursuing a certin career in which the student has the potential to succeed, however, he/she has the right to accept or reject the advice. (Foster P. 250).

Both the prevocational training and the vocational training can be implemented in a variety of ways-in the regular classroom, in a prevocational laboratory, through exploratory on-the-job observation, in a vocational training center, through a cooperative work program in a sheltered workshop, through a competitive employment, volunteer work experience, intern program, to mention a few.

Vandergoot has referred to the training period as the "productivity enrichment phase where the primary emphasis is on career preparation." A person's productivity mediates the level of success which can be achieved in both the job search and employment. Therefore, it is important to invest in activities, such as obtaining education and training, that will yield the greatest return over the course of one's life. The earlier the initial investments occur, the greater the possibility of adequate returns." (P 15)

The Job or Production Readiness Phase

During this phase the individual begins to specifically prepare for placement in the world of work. A placement which has the potential for career development involves certain decisions based on realistic assessments of the clients characteristics and abilities and the environment in which he/she will be living and working. Vandergoot recommends that the client and counselor get together information based on an evaluation of the client's educational, social, and psychological development, independent living abilities, and worldof-work knowledge. (P. 21). Planning can then proceed and be implemented with the client playing a major role in decision making. It is during this phase that rehabilitation strategies may be implemented concentrating on psychological factors as well as modifications needed for career success. Specialized training adapted to the labor market and to the specific disability needs of the handicapped person can be provided or refined at this point. Developing job seeking skills, and acquiring labor market information become important. Post-employment evaluation services are also needed to follow-up and assess the adjustment to the job, whereby the counselor can arrange for additional training intensive counseling services, modifications, or removal of architectural or transportation barriers.

The Career Enrichment Phase

Persons connected with manpower needs should of course be sensitive to the need for upward mobility, continuing education and leadership training to constantly assure the handicapped as well as the nonhandicapped of opportunity to advance. A system must be in place to provide counseling services to the handicapped in upward mobility. They must have knowledge of opportunities for promotion. Personnel departments in large agencies and corporations should be on the lookout for promising handicapped employees along with nonhandicapped to be included in training courses which prepare their more promising employees for advancement. The vocational rehabilitation counselor should systematically evaluate the job proficiency of "closed" cases to assure upward mobility of the handicapped.

Definition

Vocational assessment has been defined as the process whereby students gain insight into their vocational potential--their abilities and the work environments best suited for them. Vocational potential refers to those characteristics of an individual that have direct or indirect bearing on vocational behavior, that is, the individual's aptitudes, abilities, interests, personality traits, motivations, and concepts of self as shaped by one's experiences up to the time of the appraisal. (Davis, Ward, Foster).

The Council on State Administrators of Vocational Rehabilitation offered the following legal/administrative definition in their Guidelines of 1972 as follows: "the measurement of the handicapped individual's ability to do productive work and a determination of his work potential. It involves assessment of all aspects of an individual's ability to function in a work situation."

Other definitions include: "the process of assessing an individual's physical, mental, and emotional abilities, limitations and tolerances in order to predict his future employment potential and adjustment. It is interdisciplinary and involves data from within and outside the total rehabilitation team." (Roberts 1970)

Standards

Vocational assessment should not be conducted in a vacuum. It must have a rationale. No part of any vocational test should be given to a student without a specific reason. It may be used as a diagnostic tool for determining an appropirate new strategy or treatment plan, or it may be used to determine the progress and readiness for the next step in the job training and placement process.

Agencies administering tests should establish procedures that insure confidentiality of information and guarantee the student's right to privacy. Careful consideration should be given to the selection of standardized vocational instruments for use with handicapped students. They must be valid for the purposes intended and reliable for use with students with particular handicaps (Davis and Ward). There are many controversial aspects to testing in that results can be overly biased or subjective. Because of the multiplicity of tests it is important to be selective and that they be administered at all times by qualified personnel knowledgeable about problems unique to the handicapped.

It is important to again emphasize the practice of a systematic approach to vocational assessment. It should not be used haphazardly or in a trial and error manner. The system has certain well defined components which cut across the various levels of development of the student. In addition, the testing procedure has clear goals and objectives. The vocational assessment process has two principle phases: one is an ongoing evaluation process which should occur throughout the student's schooling and training, and the other is a formal evaluation procedure to be conducted at specific times and under specific conditions. There is a wide variety of informal testing and observation procedures described in the literature to ascertain the student's characteristics and interests as he/she develops career or vocational competancies. The on-going process requires maintenance of cumulative records by the school or training personnel relating to vocational development based on performance in class, or from laboratory or work experience, on-the-job training or intern programs. It is based primarily on grades and staff comments. The formal assessment is data related to personal interviews, psychometric testing, personal management skills testing, behavioral observations, work sample testing, testing of vocational aptitudes and interests, and others. There is a wealth of formalized testing material some of which can be used for standard measurement purposes and some of which can be adapted to individual needs. Foster describes and analyzes a comprehensive list of tests in relation to various disability groups. (P. 339-352). These include intelligence tests, developmental scales, achievement tests, general and vocational aptitude tests, mechanical aptitude tests, manual dexterity tests, vocational interest inventories, diagnostic tests, and personality and social functioning tests.

Components of Vocational Assessments

The vocational assessment procedures have been classified into six major components as follows:

1. The review and/or updating of medical, psychological, educational and social assessment data
2. Individual interviews to determine the student's interests and career goals
3. Administration of selected standardized or locally developed diagnostic instruments to assess vocational aptitudes and interests
4. Use of work samples to evaluate potential for developing vocational skills
5. Observation and assessment of personal management skills and work behavior
6. Situational assessment that provide simulation of real work situations or on-the-job evaluation

Personal Information

The medical data should be used to assess the student's general health and physical limitations that could effect occupational choices. It can also be used in exploring whether or not additional types of treatment or physical rehabilitation would be beneficial to the student's career potential.

The psychological data will help determine the student's personality development, the level of emotional and social maturity, the intellectual, cognitive and perceptual functioning. It may also reveal some clues to the individual's social functioning attitudes and self image, as well as eye-hand coordination, dexterity, and manipulative skills. Psychological assessment should be used with great care, especially with handicapped as measures may be lower than normal due to the disabled child's limited developmental experiences. These tests can be used to advantage clinically if used several times to measure the disabled individual's ability to overcome certain limitations. It is important to have the psychological data interpreted by a psychologist.

Review of the educational data will reveal what the child's past strengths and weaknesses have been his level of educational attainment and where remedial instruction related to the vocational preparation might be needed.

The review of the social assessment data should be reviewed objectively. Professional help should be used in interpreting and determining future planning for a child who has a history of inappropriate social behavior either by excessive acting out or extremely shy and withdrawn. Insights may be gained from a review of the family background and life style.

Interviews

A skilled interviewer such as a counselor or social worker can gain a variety of clues to the student's levels of interests, career identity, whether or not he/she has realistic career goals. These interviews can be most helpful in obtaining biographical data relevant to career planning and determining the student's readiness for an assessment. The interview can assist the student in selfevaluation and help him/her gain insights into his own behavior pattern. It can help him/her become aware of his own strengths and weaknesses and play a role in planning any further action relating to education and rehabilitation.

Standardized Tests

The literature contains information on the adaptation of formalized tests to handicapped populations. These tests can be used to determine the extent to which a student measures up to the so called norm or to determine the student's compatability in increasing his own competencies. In many instances the use of the test is dependent upon the skill of the examiner. The tests should be selected with great care. They must be valid for the purpose intended and reliable for use with students with particular handicaps. Davis and Ward have offered the following criteria for selection of standardized instruments for vocational testing: (P. 28)

- : Student's probable motivation and ability to achieve on the particular test
- : Relevance of the task to actual employment situations
- : Likelihood of obtaining reliable measurements from a single performance
- : Usefulness of comparison of scores with general population norms
- : Adaptability for use with handicapped students
- : Validity for students with particular handicapping conditions
- : Value of criterion referenced rather than norm references instrument

As an alternative to standardized tests with norms and percentiles, a variety of competency based rating scales are being marketed. These scales assist the evaluator in determining the level of competency the student has in areas where expected skills are considered necessary in performing certain tasks. They give a profile of the degree of independence an individual has attained in various function areas related to work.

There are a number of resource centers which provide information on tests and their use for the handicapped. (See appendix) Most State Vocational Education Departments contain information centers as do universities which train personnel in special educational vocational education of vocational rehabilitation.

Work Samples

Work sample is an approach in which a set of tasks are developed to simulate as much as possible the tasks to be performed in a real work situation. They are used to assess skills, aptitudes, and abilities similar to those required in competitive employment situations. This approach is used to assess actual performance of a task such as speed, accuracy, or approach, etc. If the task is given several times its use involves noting changes in these areas. It can be used to measure a general type of ability common to many jobs such as use of tools, finger dexterity, hand-eye coordination. It can deal with observation of behavior while performing the task, thus giving clues as to work habits, such as ability to follow directions, creativeness, persistence, or reaction to stress. At times it is used for reality testing whereby an individual is given a work sample to show whether he/she can or cannot do the set of tasks. It may also alleviate an evaluators doubts about the ability of the individual in completing certain tasks.

When work samples are used properly, many or all of the above purposes are accomplished by the evaluator. However, there is controversy as to whether the samples yield positive information in the assessment process or whether they yield little beyond what is obtainable from psychological assessments. The advantages include the idea that they are more related to the actual job than are most standardized tests, that they may be more meaningful to a person since they are actual tasks of some type, that the person does not have to be "test-wise" to perform well, that they create less tenseness and anxiety than standardized tests, that they provide an opportunity for good observation, and that the reading ability is often deemphasized. The disadvantages include questions as to the validity of the work sample with the question arising as to whether the tasks are critical and crucial ones for the actual job. They lack standardization. Tasks are often so simple, but on the other hand have acquired prior learning to perform well. The scoring is based on subjective evaluation thus questioning reliability. Lastly, the work samples may be useless because they are irrelevant to the local job market.

Davis and Ward have suggested that guidelines for administering work samples should be based on the individual needs of handicapped students. They should include but not be limited to provision of individualized work sample battery for each student, the use of instructions that minimize reliance on reading skills or do not require reading to complete the task, consideration of student's performance on work samples in relation to local criteria, and opportunity for the student to train for the work samples and to retake them as necessary to increase success. (P. 29)

A number of commercial evaluation systems have been developed and are in widespread use in training laboratories. These materials have been analyzed by the Material Development Center of the Stout Vocational Rehabilitation Institute at the University of Wisconsin, Menomonie, Wisconsin. Many other publications, manuals and sound monographs and research reports slide presentations are available from Stout relating to work evaluation. (See the Appendices for more listing of work evaluation samples.)

Observation of Personal Management Skills and Work Behavior

The staff should identify specific behaviors to be observed relating to the student's independence in personal management skills and work behaviors. Factors to be assessed could include ability to function independently in the work environment, get to and from work without undue stress, attend to personal care and hygiene needs, use of prostheses and special aids and devices, communication skills, attention span and work tolerance, punctuality, need for supervision, self-confidence, emotional stability. A number of rating scales have been devised to assist the examiner in recording his observations in a systematic manner. The Stout Center has described all widely used rating instruments in a brochure entitled Client Rating Scales for Use in Vocational Rehabilitation Facilities. The results of these observations can be most useful in developing individualized training programs for the student.

On The Job Evaluation

Another method for work evaluation is the job try-out approach in which the individual is placed directly into an actual job situation. In these situations the evaluatory works with the student on the job site. This method has appeal but has limitations due to time constraints and observation of extraneous aspects of the job which may or may not relate to ultimate career success or failure of the student. There are instances when trainees can be placed in actual jobs within the training institutions in the office, lunchroom, or other areas and evaluated in terms of competencies and career potential, thus providing an opportunity for evaluation at the training site. As CETA becomes more involved in job-placement training for handicapped persons, they can probably develop appropriate strategies for effective on-the-job evaluation. Vocational rehabilitation counselors have gained some knowledge in this area but tend to close cases after placement so there is little data relating evaluation in terms of career potential. There is some evaluation material from the agencies working in the area of bioengineering which have developed job-modification techniques for placing handicapped in actual jobs. (Mallick)

Summary and Conclusions

Vocational assessment is interrelated with the developmental process of an individual. Before determining appropriate assessment practices it is necessary to develop an understanding of the life-span approach to career development, especially as applied to handicapped individuals whose developmental process may fluctuate in different areas of growth. The career development process of which vocational education is but one component may be classified into four general phases--namely, the prevocational phase, the vocational education and training phase, the job or production readiness phase and the career enhancement phase.

Vocational assessment which cuts across all phases has been defined as a process of measuring an individuals's abilities and evaluating characteristics in terms of his/her vocational potential. It contains various components which include review and updating of medical, psychological, education, and social data; interviews to determine interests and aptitudes; standardized diagnostic and achievement tests; vocational aptitude and interest inventories; work samples; and observations of work behavior in simulated or on-the-job evaluations. Tests should only be given when a specific purpose of rationale has been established. They should be selected and administered with great care by qualified personnel. Because of cultural and other biases their reliability is questioned. Many of the tests tend to be discriminatory against handicapped persons who have lacked developmental experiences upon which the tests are based. In order to offset these biases, new assessment procedures are being adopted and proving successful with the handicapped. These assessment procedures have sought to focus on competencies of disabled children rather than on the deficits. They form the basis for the diagnostic and prescriptive teaching methods employed in developing their individualized education and training programs. These tests deal in more concrete terms, are less dependent upon reading and language and give handicapped persons a clearer view of his/her abilities and build his/her self-image.

The assessment program for handicapped persons is dependent upon interdisciplinary relationships from a variety of sources - counselors, psychologists, social workers, teachers, therapists, other health professionals, parents and the students themselves.

Most authorities agree that the testing program is only as good as the tester. If they are used as a tool for future career planning of the student, then the interpretation of the test in concert with the student is the key to future success. The areas of vocational interests and vocational aptitudes are directly related to the experiential background of the student. If the interests are narrow, unrealistic and the aptitudes extremely limited, then it may be necessary to plan a program in cooperation with the student and his/her family in widening horizons. Field trips to offices, industry and farms, as well as exploratory activities in work laboratories and simulated work stations, may be in order. Concentrated use of media showing a variety of occupations and how some handicapped have achieved employment in these areas may be helpful. It may be expedient to administer these tests two or three times following these prescriptive efforts to deal with deficiencies in order to determine if any changes occur before planning a vocational program.

The development of relevant work attitudes relates in part to the motivation of the student to succeed in a career as well as to the level of emotional maturity and respect for authority. These are the behavioral aspects of the individual and require intensive attention over a period of time. The assessment program as described in the text, especially the competency based assessment along with work samples, observations and interviews should help to give the student insights into the need to develop appropriate behavior in relation to work. The training staff should be extremely vigilant in attending to the behavioral area as deficiencies of relevant work attitudes can be the greatest cause of failure. Giving the student a major role in the decision making relating to his career choice can help motivate him to appropriate work behaviors. During the training program some clinical approaches may be necessary to help him/her overcome short attention span, lack of respect for authority figures, unrealistic expectations and other behavioral disorders.

The area of self-esteem relates to the understanding an individual has of his own behavior. A person with a low self-image feels inadequate and often expresses this in the form of immature behavior. In general these behaviors can be alleviated by developing a program for the individual based on success activities so that he/she can gradually feel his abilities. Accompanying this effort clinical approaches may be necessary to help the student verbalize and gain insights into his feelings and the reasons for his feelings. The total special educational process must be geared to helping the individual gain confidence for participating in mainstream society in spite of a handicap. The student has to develop attitudes which will help him/her make the best of the powers he/she has, and develop his/her strengths and learn to live as best he/she can in his/her environment. Painful as it may be, handicapped persons need help in living with the realities rather than having it devastate their lives. This is sometimes more difficult for the mildly than severely handicapped.

In order to help a student gain social acceptance, particularly as applied to the world of work where his interpersonal relationships and ability to get along with others becomes important, the vocational curriculum must include an opportunity for social growth. The student must be able to see himself as others see him. This may require group counseling sessions using therapeutic group encounter techniques. In general, however, the curriculum should include a recreational program including use of leisure time so that the student develops competencies in relating to other people.

In planning work training programs for handicapped youth, CETA prime sponsors should develop guidelines for insuring that appropriate techniques are employed in vocational assessment and that following diagnostic and testing activities are follow-up with well designed programming. A counseling component should be available to each program, so that the student and his/her family can benefit from a valid interpretation of any test results as well as be directly involved in the plans for the next steps. The implementation program which is designed should take into account the total needs of an individual. The student must be viewed as a whole person, with a personality of his very own.

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CHAPTER VI

SUPPORT SERVICES

The Support Service Concept

Supportive services to the handicapped individual and the family are considered necessary to the program development for vocational training. Not only does the student need the general psychological support and encouragement from parents and key family members, but needs their understanding as to the total program which will prepare him or her for the working worlds. In addition to participating in regularly scheduled special health and therapy programs aimed at gaining independence in activities of daily living and an improved self-image the students must be trained in appropriate work attitudes such as finishing assigned tasks and accepting responsibility. Members of the family may need guidance and counseling in helping the student mature and venture forth into more difficult, more complex and perhaps unknown environments. Overprotection of handicapped children is a well known tendency among parents.

When a handicapped student reaches the vocational level in the educational ladder, the concept of family support services should not be a new one, either to the child and his family or the school or vocational program personnel. Actually, support services to the family as well as to the handicapped child are a necessary component of any program from the time the handicap is first identified, at birth if need be and throughout the growth and development of the individual. The first Chance Program sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education's Bureau of Education for the Handicapped under the EHA which has supported infant and preschool projects throughout the nation has placed a high priority on parental and family involvement. In most special education programs the school, the parents and the support service personnel usually work together in interdisciplinary interagency relationships. Thus when a child is placed in a vocational training program, family support services continue to be needed until the student can function independently. Ideally it is a continuation process which varies only in terms of the special service needs of the vocational training program.

Until recently the supportive service concept was not necessarily considered the responsibility of the schools. Arranging for special services was considered a family responsibility and usually arranged for through private or public health agencies. Some special education programs incorporated these services within their programs, but they were not mandatory and applied only to selected students. It was not unusual for voluntary agencies such as Easter Seal Societies, Kiwanis Clubs or Cerebral Palsy Associations to provide or subsidize physical or occupational thereapy services to the schools.

Public and private health and social agencies have assumed the responsibilities of providing support services to families for handicapped individuals. The types of supportive services they have provided to parents have included social work, psychological service, counseling, guidance, marriage counseling and mobility training for the blind, or communication training for the deaf. They have helped parents in the management of the child and provided therapies and medical treatment in their clinics. However, the availability of these services was limited to selected patients or clients and the services were voluntary. Families paid for part or all of the services. Few were free. Many handicapped children and their families remained unserved or underserved. It is now recognized that the educational supportive or related services are necessary if the handicapped child is to grow and develop to the maximum. It is also recognized that special supportive services are necessary to the vocational training of a disabled youth to enable him or her to be employable. Thus the support service concept is being written into legislative programs as a requirement for funding.

Education for all handicapped children is now mandatory, in some States up to age 21, if necessary. Vocational education is a required component of the program and includes supportive or related services. The educational agencies are now rethinking their responsibilities in the light of the recent legislation which includes services to handicapped at no cost to the parents.

Legislative Definitions of "Related" or "Support" Services

Under the EHA Regulations, special education is defined as "specifically designed instruction, at no cost to the parent to meet the unique needs of a handicapped child including classroom instruction. .The term includes speech pathology, or related service, if the service consists of specially designed instruction at no cost to the parents, to meet the needs of a handicapped child, and is considered "special education" rather than a "related service" under State standards. The term also includes vocational education if it consists of specially designed instruction, at no cost to the parent, to meet the unique needs of a handicapped child."

The term "related services" is defined to mean "transportation and such developmental, corrective, and other supportive services as are required to assist a handicapped child to benefit from special education, and includes speech pathology and audiology, psychological services, physical and occupational therapy, recreation, early identification and assessment of disabilities in children, counseling services, and medical services for diagnostic of evaluation purposes. The term also includes school health services, social work services in schools, and parent counseling and training."

The Vocational Education Program uses the term "supportive (or support) services" and has approximately the same meaning as "related" services. The supportive services provided under the vocational education program usually include those services considered necessary to its instructional program such as individualized assistance in a classroom or laboratory, remedial instruction in basic academic skills which are needed in a particular course, vocational guidance and counseling related to the handicap, provision for special needs such as interpreter, note-taker, reader, tutorial aide, or attendent for physically handicapped.

In each State, under the Vocational Education Amendments, there is a fifteen percent "set-aside" of funds to be directed to the special needs of a handicapped student in a vocational education program. The student is entitled to benefits from a regular vocational education program along with the non-handicapped as well as from the additional fifteen percent which is designed to take care of his or her special needs. This gives the vocational program developers the opportunity to arrange for students and their families to receive supportive services. Each student's IEP is required to contain a list of the special support services which have been recommended for him or her with a plan for receiving the services.

It is important to note that these services prescribed by the local educational agencies in States which benefit from funds under EHA or the Vocational Education amendments must provide the support services at no cost to the parents.

The Vocational Rehabilitation Act (in Section 103) likewise provides for an array of support services. Under this program the services include "any goods or services necessary to render a handicapped individual employable." The rehabilitation and training services, including books and training materials, and services to the families; physical and mental restoration services; maintenance during rehabilitation; interpreter services for the deaf, and reader services for the blind; transportation; and others.

Under CETA sponsored programs there is also provision for supporting special services related to the training and job placement of the client. Counseling and other services can be made available to the family to help them give support to their children. The trainees can also be provided with transportation, interpreters, readers, and the like to assist them in their training program.

Parental Involvement

In the secondary school setting, a major function of a school guidance counselor is to involve and work with the family. With the mandate under EHA related services, which must be provided at no cost to the parent, include parent counseling and training, providing parents with information about child development, and assisting parents in understanding special needs of their child. The parent is also required to be involved in the educational programming including vocational education. This of course means that anyone involved with educational and vocational counseling to parents of handicapped children must have received training and be qualified in providing such service. Counselors must have positive attitudes in working with the parents, be responsive to family needs, parental attitudes and perceptions, counseling skills for presenting alternatives to parents as well as to help them increase their understanding as to the needs of their disabled child.

A number of counseling issues have been discussed by Foster (1977) who describes adolescent relationships. Some of the important aspects discussed include the independence/dependence struggle with parents that sometimes occurs with the slower progress of a disabled child as compared with the peer group, sibling rivalry, overprotection by parents as against need for privacy in personal care by disabled, the issue of sexuality. The report presents goals to work toward in counseling parents of physically disabled youngsters such as helping parents to:

> Have realistic expectations of their child and to set goals for the child that are clear, possible to attain, and in keeping with the child's interests and needs.
>
> Recognize that all young persons have imperfections.
>
> Confront any real disability-related limitation that will affect future educational or vocational achievement.
>
> Foster as much independence as possible in terms of freedom to investigate the world. To do this, it may be necessary for parents to create opportunities for different kinds of experience (Fuller, 1965, p. 113).
>
> Understand that non-acceptance of any young person can create a greater handicap than their disability itself.

Counselors also have a key responsibility in encouraging parental involvement in the education process. Foster (1977; p. 389-394) presents a number of ways for involving parents in educational and career decision making such as informing parents of evaluation and diagnostic procedures, informing them of results prior to placement in an academic or vocational course, advising parents and students at a joint meeting of educational program plans, similarly plan a joint student/parent/counselor session for future post secondary or higher education planning is involved. Parents can also serve as volunteers in the educational or vocational process or have input as advocates relative to the school and/or community programs and services for the disabled.

Issues Related to the Support Services Concept

One of the dilemas facing the program administrators under the present system for support services is the question as to how to determine which agency has the responsibility for funding the different support services needed by the individual. Where agencies cooperate in the development of the IEP, they discover that one or more agencies has the authority to provide a needed service. Together they can decide which agency underwrites the service.

Even though there are federal funds supporting many of these programs, the amount of financial support tends to be limited and the bulk of the funding for these services must come from the lcoal authorities. Vocational education and vocational rehabilitation programs require matching funds, and even the total amount of funds available are often insufficient to meet the needs.

Under the cooperative agreements many local educational agencies have worked out a reasonable system with the vocational rehabilitation agency for the family support system providing special counseling, readers, interpreters, and specialized training equipment for certain vocations. However, as can be seen from the recent articles the "similar benefits" issue is coming under close scrutiny in which vocational rehabilitation questions whether or not its agency or one of the other agencies should provide a service.

Another issue relates to the responsibility of a family which has sufficient resources to provide for the support services. In some cases their insurance programs cover the costs. With the limited available funancial resources in many local communities, there is the feeling by many officials that families have a responsibility to share in the costs. Parents often have the capability to assist in the transportation needs. Even if a school or program arranges transportation, alternative transportation arrangements are often necessary and parents can be most helful. Parents and other family members can be key in helping a student gain independent skills in use of public transportation to special services or to job stations. Parental consent is needed for driver education training and on occasion for purchase of a specially equipped vehicle. The issue of the extent of public versus private or family financing for a number of the needed support services will continue to be under discussion for some time, especially during periods of inflation and recession when there is a scarity of dollars. The attitude of the family in cooperating with the student training effort is important.

In developing the support services to be included in the various individualized programs, care must be taken not to confuse the family with conflicting recommendations. There must be great sensitivity to the personal dynamics of the family which should not be overwhelmed with more participation in the handicapped members training program than it can comfortable manage.

An important aspect of the provision for special services which must not be overlooked is the utilization of services by the individual and the family. Even though a set of services is considered necessary to an individual or group of handicapped persons the quality and amount they receive is dependent upon a number of factors such as:

: Commitment of the community to provide such services either through public or private agencies, or both;

: The availability and accessibility of the services;

: The utilization of the services by the family and student, especially when they have resistance, anxieties or have negative feelings relative to the responsiveness of the service providers.

: The sophistication of the efforts at interdisciplinary and interagency coordination by the staff of the agencies involved.

: The cost of the services to the family including costs of transportation to get the services, of home aids and equipment needed to assist the student, of child care for other members of the family if the parent leaves the home.

Summary and Conclusions

Thus, when a handicapped student enters the vocational education program in a secondary, or post secondary school, or in a special program, the amount and type of supportive services he needs is dependent on the previous program, the present needs and any special services required for entry into the world of work. The special services prescription will vary from student to student. The vocation education teacher and/or counselor as well as the vocational rehabilitation counselor should all cooperate in the needs assessment and prescription of the supportive service program. If the training program is a CETA sponsored program, one or more members of its staff should participate in the support service plan.

With support services included in various pieces of legislation which provide for vocational education, training and job placement of handicapped youth, an appropriate coordination mechanism must be developed for the operation and administration levels. It must be flexible, be dependent upon resources available to the community, and even include some parental participation where possible. The resources within other public and private agencies, from insurance coverage should be considered in developing plans for supportive services. Cooperative planning should be initiated in determining which agency should serve as the focal point for coordinating the needed services. Sometimes a vocational rehabilitation counselor would be the logical person as this agency might be less threatening to the family than the educational agency.

In prescribing the supportive services, care must be taken not to confuse the family with conflicting recommendations. The ultimate objective of enabling the handicapped young person to become employable and satisfactorily placed in gainful employment must be the key issue around which all prescriptive services take place.

Parent counseling by the school or agency which is providing the vocational or job preparation training is a key component of providing family and student supportive or related services. There are many ways for parental involvement whereby parents are provided with guidance and referral services, or can become directly involved with the education and training processes.

Because the field of vocational education for the handicapped is a relatively recent priority in school systems, there is little in the literature about the relation between the extent of the family support services and outcome on employability of the student. Where the special education programs and vocational rehabilitation programs have worked together in the past, involving the family, there is some evidence that the students have fared better in employment. With parental support the students have gained more maturity for adjustment to employment, have acquired employable skills and accepted responsibility needed for work.

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CHAPTER VII

JOB PLACEMENT AND THE PRIVATE SECTOR

Job Placement Before 1960

The efforts for agencies to be concerned with job-placement for handicapped school aged youth is a relatively new phenomena. Before the 1960's except for students who could attend regular classes, few public schools provided education for the handicapped beyond the 8th grade or age 16 (the usual compulsory school attendance age). Secondary aged students with severe handicaps were enrolled in residential schools for the blind, deaf, or orthopedically handicapped. The mentally retarded and psychotic could be found in institutions without educational service. Local school districts provided home and hospital instruction for only about two or three hours each week per student. All of the aforementioned programs were limited and tended to build up waiting lists. Thus, as we entered the 1960's in this country, it was the exception rather than the rule for a handicapped student to be enrolled in a high school or vocational school.

Schools with good counseling programs referred handicapped students to the vocational rehabilitation service for vocational training and counseling. The vocational rehabilitation program cooperated to a limited degree with a few schools by providing vocational evaluation while students were still in school; however, most rehabilitation services were conducted outside the school system. This program accepted for rehabilitation only those applicants who were expected to be employed after two years of rehabilitation services so that clients tended to be those with the greatest potential. Common practice was to purchase evaluation and training services through sheltered workshops or training institutions which specialized in specific occupational skills. Popular trades were watch-repair or dental laboratory work for the orthopedically handicapped, printing for the deaf or chair caning or upholstery work for the blind. The clients selected tended to be among the more intelligent individuals. In a few cases a college education was subsidized by the vocational rehabilitation agency. Mentally retarded who were accepted were usually found in the sheltered workshops like Goodwill

Industries which accepted contracts from business and industry but were paid substandard wages. In a few States with well developed departments of Special Education like Wisconsin, Minnesota and in some parts of Ohio, the vocational rehabilitation agency was able to work out cooperative vocational, special education cooperative agreements for job training and placement of handicapped students. However, although it has been proven that many physically disabled and most mentally retarded can work either in competitive settings or in sheltered workshops according to the best available evidence, only 42 of all noninstitutionalized disabled adults aged 16 to 64 are employed. "An astounding three-fifths of disabled adults of working age are at or near poverty level, according to the U.S. Census Bureau". (Bowe 1977)

When vocational education was introduced in the schools, it became a rather specialized program in eight occupational areas; namely agriculture, distributive education, health occupations, home economics, consumer education, office occupations, technical education, industrial arts, and trade and industrial occupations. Under these educational programs there was no effort to accommodate the handicapped. Only those handicapped who could independently accommodate to an existing vocational education program were allowed to enroll and hopefully ultimately enter the job market.

Job-Placement Models of the '60's

During the late 1960's the enactment of legislation specifically including the handicapped as a category to be served under vocational education began to change the vocational outlook for the handicapped. With the availability of "set-aside" funds, a number of States and school districts began to establish pilot programs in occupational and vocational education for the handicapped. The accounts and descriptions of these projects contain little information from which one can generalize relative to the ultimate placement of these students in the private sector. However, the accounts do contain a wealth of information about the types of vocational training tried, the methods used, the staffing patterns and the interagency cooperative efforts. The job placement components tended to fall within three models 1) work-study programs established within a special class program where occupational experiences were found within the class, school or community;

2) special education occupational centers where simulated occupational experiences were designed for them such as laundry rooms, cafeterias, retail stores, and the like through which the students could gain vocational skills and perhaps receive token payment for their work and 3) cooperative education programs where students spent part time in school and part time in a work setting either in sheltered workshops or on regular jobs. Sometimes sheltered workshops were used as work-evaluation and training centers. Some of these projects provided placement and follow-up services, but there is little data available as to the ultimate career and upward mobility of these trainees. What this program did achieve was an administrative system within each State with responsibility for planning, supervising, or monitoring in cooperation with local educational agencies vocation programs for the handicapped.

Research Reports

Studies of the outcomes of special education, vocational education and vocational rehabilitation during the early 70's reveal that handicapped youth are untrained, undertrained in employment skills, have high drop-out rates from school and are basically not fit for employment. They also revealed many flaws in the systems which were supposed to serve them. For example, a high proportion of the students aged 17-21 who had been in special education classes did not continue school after age 16 to pursue career or vocational development. Vocational education teachers reflected negative attitudes toward enrolling handicapped students in their classes and lacked competencies for teaching handicapped students. The 10 percent "set-aside" funds for handicapped under the Vocational Education Program were not fully utilized in some States and not distributed in accordance with need in many States (Comptroller General Report to Congress, 1976; and Olympus Study). For those handicapped vocational achievers who did find jobs, barriers to promotions from entry-level jobs seemed insurmountable. (Bowe 1977)

(1) Nationwide Survey of Occupational Programs

In 1972 the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped supported a nationwide survey of vocational education projects conducted by Management Analysis Center, Inc. (MAC) Through the State administrative units MAC had a viable system through which information could be obtained. Out of a universe of 450 programs nominated by educational agencies and concerned organizations as worthy of special study, descriptive information was obtained from 330 respondents (or 73%) to questionnaires about these programs. Of these 30 were selected by the researchers for site visits. The basic questions the investigators attempted to answer were:

1. How effective is the program in reducing the level of its handicapped students in comparison with other programs of the same type?

2. How comprehensive is the range of services and education offered by the program in comparison with other programs of the same type?

3. How replicable is the program for other geographic areas of other handicapping conditions in comparison to other programs of the same type?

The overall finding indicate that while good programs do exist, the vocational services are "generally weak". Overall weaknesses listed the handicapped as consigned to training for menial occupations, with the sexual stereotyping in occupational categories, lack of funds, of good facilities, of equipment and of suitable teaching materials, and too few instructions serving this population. Interagency cooperation was found to be poor. Unsuccessful projects fell into three major categories, namely those that:

: fail to prepare the environment for the student as well as prepare the student for the environment;

: fail to take advantage of or solicit assistance from services or groups outside the immediate administration of the program;

: do not insure the relevance of the program content to the job market and environment in which students will live when they graduate.

MAC presents some of the effective practices of the projects which were studied and presents ideas for successful programming. In the area of the criteria for job-placement and follow-up MAC presents the following guidelines: (p. 28)

> Job development is involved in setting up the transition of the student from the work-study environment to the world of actual employment. The next phase--job-placement--effects that transition for student and program staff alike. The ultimate test for any occupational program for the handicapped is what happens after a job is found for the student. . .Placement and assistance to the student at the crucial point is as essential as classroom instruction. Effective programs provide adequate staff time for the job or effectively utilize other community agencies or both. The person who makes the placement must have familiarity with the student in order to anticipate problems in making the transition and sufficient time available to take swift remedial action if problems arise. As with job development this requires a relationship of trust and confidence with the employer.

In discussing transition to the world of work, MAC stresses the need for preparing the student for the society and preparing the society for the student. He presents the following guidelines: (p. 72, 73)

: the first and most obvious step is to make the curriculum relevant to the local job market;

: relevance of training to the particular job market is vitally important;

: handicapped have more difficulty than non-handicapped transferring from one job to another;

: communications with prospective employers should be established early and maintained diligently;

: potential employers should have a hand in planning the vocational portions of the program;

: orientation programs can be held for employers, and work-study programs can provide a tie with employers in themselves

: job development which is the search for and development of employment opportunities for handicapped students includes already defined jobs and jobs that require working with the employer to adapt them slightly or modify them so that they may be performed by the handicapped;

: the student's programming should include increasing the compatability of the student to employment environments.

: the construction of an inventory of potential employers and jobs is part of the establishment and management of the external relations phase of a school program, whereby programs that are willing to commit staff time to these activities are usually more effective in meeting the needs of students and in bringing them to a higher level of independence than those that do not make such use of staff.

(2) Assessment of Vocational Education Program

The Olympus Research Corporation provides some data in its 1974 FINAL REPORT of An Assessment of Vocational Education Programs for the Handicapped Under Part B of the 1968 Amendments to the Vocational Education Act. This study investigated programs and projects in 25 States involving (1) an assessment of program administration at the state level, (2) a project level assessment of vocational education for the handicapped; and (3) case study interviews with students, parents (or heads of households), and employers. While the 25 states were involved in the state study sample and project level sample, only five states were included on the case study interviews. However, these five states were considered representative of all the states and contained 45 percent of all projects studied and 41 percent of the total enrollment in the 25 states. Programs studied in the five states included those in four major classroom environments: regular classroom (integration with regular students), special classroom, sheltered workshop (Off campus setting), and jobs (supervised work environment most frequent in a campus vocational laboratory).

Special classroom	48%
Integrated classroom	25%
Sheltered workshop	20%
Job setting	7%

The study contains a section related to a job experience (p. 167-187) in which the investigators attempt to determine if the job training had an impact on student's employability, hours worked, and wages received and expectations for future jobs. At the time of the interview there were those who were still enrolled in a program, program completers who were still in school, and completers who were not in school. At the time of the interview, one out of three held a job outside of school as follows: 2 out of 10 of the currently enrolled, 4 out of 10 of the completer still in school and 6 out of 10 of the completer out of school. The factors associated with the number of jobs held included geographic differences in different states, urban vs. rural and a lower age of participants in one state. Points of interests mentioned are that 1) age was positively associated with the proportion holding a current job--in favor of the older student; 2) whites are more likely to hold jobs out of school than blacks and 3) no difference was found between those without work experience components in their training.

The investigator studied the type of jobs, type of business or industry, hours and wages. Findings indicated that job entry centered on job-seeking talents of individual participants and helpfulness of family and friends (45). Next most frequently mentioned help in getting a job came from teachers and program coordinators within the school system. (P. 169) As to wages, the physically or sensory handicapped made slightly more than mentally handicapped students; men more than women; whites and blacks more than Spanish surnamed; older enrollees more than younger; and enrollees with work experience components as part of their training made more than those whose training did not include a work experience component. (P. 173) As part of this study, 94 employers were interviewed and the investigators caution against making strong inferential leaps from these data due to the small sample size. They state "From the participating employer's view, handicapped students were eager employees who were anxious to learn their jobs. . .In general, their expressed attitudes toward the job and work setting were good. Most importantly, handicapped student workers compare favorably with regular workers." (P. 179) In response to questions regarding employee-related problems, only eight employers encountered problems. One in five cited problems with discipline as a problem with handicapped student workers.

The referral process and initial involvement in the work education program was attributed by employers to the school contacts who approached them. In only 14 percent of the cases did the company initiate the contact. (P. 184) In regard to hiring procedures nearly two-thirds of the participating companies hire participants as permanent employees and select employees mainly on the basis of their demonstrated ability. Sixty-two percent of those employers responding felt there was room for advancement, while 38 percent believed there was no real opportunity for advancement mainly because of placement in "dead-end jobs." (P. 185) When compared to participating employers, responses from non-participating employers felt that hiring the handicapped would require significant changes in their business environment. (P. 158)

The summary reports the following: (P. 225-226)

> Because of the absence of a control group, it was impossible to determine whether the project participants were more successful in finding jobs than their handicapped counterparts who did not participate in the program. Nevertheless, the outcome information appears to be favorable:
>
> 1. Five out of ten completers who were still enrolled in school were employed.
>
> 2. Six out of ten completers who were no longer in school were employed.
>
> 3. The average wage received by completers out of school was $2.17 an hour; the corresponding figures for completers in school was $2.07 an hour.
>
> 4. Of the employed completers, 70 percent were in service occupations (41 percent), miscellaneous occupations (18%), and clerical and sales (1%).

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5. Eighty-four percent of the completers were employed in the following industries: Miscellaneous service (36 percent), trade (20 percent) government (14 percent), and manufacturing (14 percent).

6. Work experience students earn more than those not enrolled in this type of program, although the placement rates for the groups are about the same.

Participating employers expressed favorable attitudes toward the program. Three out of four participating employers rated the performance of handicapped students and/or completers "as good" or "better than" regular workers in each of eight performance scales.

Nonparticipating employers were not quite so disposed to be in favor of the program as their participating counterparts:

1. Of the nonparticipating employers, 52 percent had negative feelings about participating in the program

2. When compared to participating employers, nonparticipating employers were more likely to believe that hiring handicapped individuals would require significant changes in their business environments.

3. Sixty-one percent of the nonparticipating employers had heard of the program and 14 percent had previously participated in it.

4. Only sixteen out of a total of 71 nonparticipating employers had been directly approached and refused to participate.

(3) Research on Relationship of Vocational Rehabilitation and Manpower

One of the most comprehensive studies relating to the employment of the disabled was done by Sar Levaton and Robert Taggart in which the investigators analyzed from voluminous data the relationship between vocational rehabilitation and manpower. The findings of the study have been published in a book by the John Hopkins Press entitled Jobs for the Disabled (1977). The survey was based on 1972 data. They report that in 1972 under the Social Security Act definition of disabled, there were 7.7 million severely disabled persons aged 20 to 64. The extent of work limitations ranges from complete to marginal. Only one seventh were employed at the time of the survey and only 6% held full time jobs. (P. 2) They reported many employment problems, such as frequent work interruptions, a poor attendance record, concentration on the worst jobs (one tenth of the work force as service workers, laborers, farm laborers, and household workers. At the time of the survey three out of ten persons were not in the labor force--without jobs and not looking for work. (P. 5)

As for employers, their findings reveal that "employer" surveys evidence a general reluctance to hire the disabled when nondisabled workers are availabe. Many employers believe that there are higher costs, such as increased workers' compensation expenses or inflated medical and life insurance premiums. Although most believe that the disabled will be more reliable, they fear involuntary absenteeism and turnover. Another consideration is the lack of flexibility in job assignments and difficulty of promotion. (P. 8) The author states, ". . . the existence of a few productive employment opportunities for disabled workers does not prove that there is a large number of additional jobs they could fill. Whether based on reasonable best guesses by employers or on an unreasoned bias against the mentally and physically handicapped, the attitudes are facts of life that will be difficult to change. Publicity campaigns to encourage the hiring of the disabled have not met with much success."

The authors of this book did an indepth analysis of the rehabilitation and employment system of the disabled of working age and on the whold found the situation rather grim. The study revealed that during 1973 half of the rehabilitants received some kind of training; yet only one-fifth of a sample of rehabilitants felt that training had directly helped them in getting a job or that they used training very much in their current job. The author discusses the kinds of training from college or university to personal and vocational adjustment. They describe evolutionary changes in the vocational rehabilitation program with increased reliance on sheltered workshops among their clients, with more emphasis on the mentally ill and mentally retarded. "Reflecting the expansion of income support, the proportion receiving public assistance rose from 11-19 percent over the six years between 1968 and 1972 while the proportion whose primary source of support was earning 20-16 percent." (P. 42) They also describe the effects of slack labor markets on successful "closure" cases and other factors which are resulting in a lower success rate from 80 percent in 1963 to 62 percent during the first quarter of 1976. Other aspects of the rehabilitation program discussed in the report center around the disabled Veterans Program, sheltered workshops with their substandard wage remuneration for work. The authors discuss a number of issues pointing to the decline in overall job opportunities including the rapid growth of the social insurance systems for the disabled and the welfare and food stamp benefits which in some ways provide disincentives for the handicapped to work. The authors conclude that employment is not a realizable objective for more than a small minority. Even after training it is difficult to find jobs. "Public employment was not the answer because the public sector was just as leery of aid recipients as the private sector." (P. 109) After analyzing various options, the authors state "Patience and compassion may be better policy than an aggressive effort to reform the disability system, to expand rehabilitation efforts, or to get tough with applicants. (P. 110) The authors conclude, "The purpose of this analysis is not to redirect policy, but to suggest different perspectives for decision makers. Labor market conditions must be a primary consideration in assessing efforts on behalf of the disabled. There must be a greater understanding of the overlap between disability and other obstacles that prevent workers from functioning effectively in the work force. The role of vocational rehabilitation in the galaxy of human resource development efforts must be recognized, policies coordinated, and experience cross-fertilized. There is no doubt about the importance of vocational rehabilitation in combating the consequences of disability. But there is room for improvement--and it will best be realized by taking a new look at old problems." (Page 119)

The messages to be found in this study are that unless the job market accelerates, unless attitudes of the employers improve, unless there are economic incentives for disabled to work and attain earnings well beyond the income maintenance level, that the training and rehabilitation programs being offered to the youth will not achieve the objectives with long-term subsidized employment either in the public or private sector.

Youth Programs

A little ray of sunshine comes through from the exemplary youth programs which indicate that when young people received training relevant to the job markets in their home communities, when both their families and potential employers were actively involved in the training programs, thus reducing their anxieties about employing handicapped, the young people had a better chance for successful job-placement and upward mobility. The older students achieved better employment success than the younger ones, which indicates that younger students should be encouraged to remain in the school setting.

Based on reports and studies there is little available data relation to the transition from school to work, nor is there any readily available significant information related to youth employment in the private or public sectors. What is available are numerous accounts of success stories of handicapped persons who have found suitable employment in the private sector. Because the Disabled Veteran's Program and the Vocational Rehabilitation Program which have long histories of training the handicapped for employment, there are many individuals who have had successful outcomes from their training. However, this information usually pertains to handicapped within the "employable" ages, and to those eligible for rehabilitation in that they are expected to be employable within two years after training, thus there is little we can learn from these reports about youth employment practices. However, there is no reason we cannot benefit from the procedures that resulted in successful employment outcomes which could be applied to youth programs. Major factors for success in addition to the skill development included good counseling, motivation of the client, training for relevant jobs, dedication of staff in gaining cooperation of employers, and family support.

The literature contains several examples of cooperative school programs involving the special education class and the rehabilitation agency. When these projects included a job placement specialist in the project, there was usually a liasion between the school program and the private sector. Students were able to benefit from supervised job placement on an actual worksite, which in reality provided reassurances for the employer as well as for the student. Several models provided work evaluation, skill training and actual work experience in a sheltered workshop setting before being placed in an unsubsidized job in the private sector. Relationships were also established with public agencies to hire qualified handicapped students, especially in public agencies. Those who resided in communities with federal agencies were able to place some in federal employment under the Selective Placement Program for the handicapped administered by the U.S. Civil Service Commission. The positions included various types of clerical jobs such as supply clerk, inventory analyst, duplicating machine operator, clerk typist and the like. Thus, when given a chance, there appears to be little reason why handicapped students who acquire employable skills relevant to the job market, who gain appropriate work attitudes, who have access to the job market, who can provide for all their personal daily needs, cannot enjoy the same opportunities for employment either in the public or private sectors as the non-handicapped.

Negative Employer Attitudes

The major barrier to employment of handicapped, especially youth, appears to be the negative attitudes found among employers in general. Employers cite cost-related factors as a main reason for not feeling comfortable in hiring handicapped workers. According to Bowe they perceive the disabled as more expensive to "hire, train, place and provide with supportive services, including accommodation, than other categories of workers. Other factors involve a perceived lack of flexibility and ability to adapt to new conditions and new responsibilities on the part of disabled persons. Productivity and faithful attendance on the job--the strengths of the disable work force, according to many studies--appears less important to many employers than cost and flexibility."

While attitudinal barriers to employment displayed by many employers continue to exist, representatives from the private sector are now taking an active part within the community with the handicapped and their advocates to promote public awareness on the need to hire the handicapped. The annual activities of the President's Committee on Employ the Handicapped along with those of the Governor's Committees and the local counterparts have been a focal point for their participations. The private sector representatives have participated in job fairs in which qualified handicapped youth can be interviewed by prospective employers, have held workshops for business men and other employers on tax incentives relating to the handicapped, and have arranged media and other promotional coverage promotiong jobs for the handicapped. Undoubtedly these kind of activities have led to the creation of many job opportunities for handicapped youth. Now, with the affirmative action requirements of the Rehabilitation Act, more employers will be receptive to these overtures in behalf of providing on-the-job training and employment for disabled youth.

Client Independence In Job-seeking

One aspect of the rehabilitation job placement research merits attention. An article by Robert T. Fraser entitled, "Rehabilitation Job Placement Research, A Trend Perspective" provides an overview of the rehabilitation job placement research that has been performed in this country over the last several years. He points out that "many jobs are routinely being secured by clients without counselor intervention." He points out the research in developing programs which strengthen the job-seeking skills of the client. He discusses research which points out the positive effects of the value of the client's independent job search activity. He discusses a number of successful techniques in developing job-seeking skills among clients but at the same time warns against hastily developed training in this area as employers who have become aware of this new type of training, especially as it relates to the job interview, develop counter techniques with rehabilitated clients.

Role of the Employment Service Agency

Although many of the reports of programs indicate that rehabilitated clients found their own jobs, the role of the Employment Service must not be overlooked. Their data reveals that they are actively involved in job placement and follow up for the handicapped. Their statistics for FY 1979 service to handicapped applicants of all ages in the United States tells that there were 782,376 handicapped applicants in 1979 and that 212,488 were placed with 168,854 of those placed in over 150 day jobs. The Employment and Training Service Manual entitled Placing Handicapped Applicants: An Employment Service Handbook discusses job development and job placement techniques to be used by Employment Service staff. They encourage the ingenuity of the employment representative in working with employers, finding and developing jobs for the handicapped. The report states, ". . . specific job openings for severely handicapped will have to be developed by contact with employers." The following excerpt from the Manual shows a commitment to the handicapped and the encouragement being given to their staff:

> "Those who have succeeded over the years in the ES offices across the United States--generally attribute their effectiveness to plain hard work. They believe in their applicants, they left the office and banged on employers' doors, they refused to quit until a placement had been arranged. They got to know employers personally, were candid with them, and used their imagination to see opportunities where others would not have.
>
> Many--perhaps most--local ES offices have such people. They have their own contacts, and employers know and trust them. In good labor markets and bad they somehow manage to produce placements, and sometimes they score with an "impossible applicant." (P. 57)

Affirmative Action

Probably the greatest incentive for promoting employment of the handicapped results from the affirmative action provisions of the Rehabilitation Act Amendments, an effort to protect the employment rights of handicapped. As a result of these provisions which give handicapped persons the right to be recruited, considered and employed in the same manner as non-handicapped in firms and establishments doing business with the federal government means that employers are now receptive to ways in which to comply with the affirmative action requirements. Section 503 requires all contractors and subcontractors with federal contracts of $2,500 or more to take affirmative action to employ and promote qualified handicapped individuals. Section 503 covers about half of all business in the United States. In addition to hiring handicapped individuals, these employers must also take affirmative action in job assignment, promotions, training, transfers and terminations. The Department of Labor's Office of Federal Contract Compliance Program (OFCCP) which is charged with enforcement of Section 503 has been assisting employers in establishing affirmative action programs and in settling discrimination complaints.

Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act prohibits discrimination against disabled persons in federally funded programs. Under this section an employer receiving federal assistance may not discriminate against a handicapped person solely on the basis of the disability in recruitment, advertising, hiring, promotion of demotion practices, transfer, layoff, in job assignments or career ladders; or other fringe benefits. Once hired, the employer is required to take reasonable steps to accommodate the disability unless it would cause the employer hardship. Reasonable accommodations and accessibility where necessary, must be provided, to the extent governed by the size and type of employing agency involved.

Affirmative action relating to employment of the handicapped is opening the doors of major private sector establishments. At the District of Columbia Association for Retarded Citizens Annual Employer of the Year luncheon, in addition to representatives from major government agencies, eighteen private business or institutions were represented including department stores, restaurant chains, hospitals, professional organizations, printers, photo service and others. Other States are reporting similar interest.

The civil rights legislation gives the vocational educators of the handicapped, the rehabilitation agencies and other personnel who prepare for employment a golden opportunity to offer training programs to assist employers in accommodating to this legislation. Through post-secondary school, colleges and universities which have developed various types of expertise in vocational education for the handicapped, in rehabilitation, or in architecture for the handicapped, workshops and training programs could be established for potential employers of the handicapped, for business executives, or for business and trade organizations concerned with productivity. Community based colleges can offer various types of continuing education offerings in this area to local businessmen.

By potential employers becoming involved with projects, by their serving on advisory committess or cooperating with projects themselves, employers can help to develop jobs for handicapped youth. Linking the potential employers to the secondary and post-secondary vocational training programs for handicapped youth could be an opportune time not only for giving youth a chance for post school unsubsidized employment, but for assisting employers who must demonstrate compliance with the affirmative action provision of the law.

Summary and Conclusions

The emphasis on training and placement of handicapped in gainful employment is a relatively new phenomena. In the past few special education programs that went beyond the eight grade, vocational rehabilitation agencies either found them too young to be eligible or found the majority ineligible on the basis of the severity of their handicap. Vocational rehabilitation services was only provided to candidates who had the potential for employment within two years. During the 1960's schools and vocational rehabilitation agencies began to develop cooperative agreements. Where projects were developed for relevant occupational training and job-placement of handicapped youths, there are many success stories. Much of the success of these efforts is based on the staffing patterns with job-placement specialists who worked in the community to develop and place the handicapped in supervised worksite experiences.

Reasons for lack of success in many cases appear due to lack of environmental preparation, failure to utilize or provide appropriate supportive services, irrelevancy of program content to local job-market conditions; the decline of job opportunities during recessions, difficulty in finding jobs, lack of incentives to handicapped due to welfare and social insurance programs, negative employer attitudes, and transportation and accessibility barriers.

There is little significant information pertaining to transition from school to gainful employment in the private sector for handicapped youth. A few accounts of exemplary youth programs indicate that many of the negative disincentives could be overcome with concentrated effort, dedication, public awareness and involvement of families and employers in the training and job-placement process.

We are now in a period when Congress and State legislative bodies have strengthened the legislative programs, requiring equal opportunity to the handicapped for education, training, employment, accessibility to mainstream activities--schools, colleges, recreation area, public buildings, shopping centers, employment facilities--and the like. They have legislated transportation accommodations, modifications to training and work-sites, special services--such as interpreters and readers--to accommodate the functional needs of special disability groups. They have increased the resources to integrate the handicapped into society so that they can achieve and participate to their maximum in society's life style.

With the implementation of the affirmative action legislation, it is anticipated that the coming decade will see many positive steps in providing relevant training and placement of qualified handicapped youth in both private and public sector jobs on the same level as placement for the so called non-handicapped. The exemplary successful models show that overcoming many of the barriers to employment of handicapped youth is possible and that these methods could be applied on a larger scale to the handicapped youth as a whole. To achieve success, however, a concerted effort at all policy making levels would be necessary.

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CHAPTER VIII

JOB RESTRUCTURING

Job restructuring or job modification is the process of adapting the working environment to a handicapped individual or class of handicapped persons. It may also include devising specific appliances or protheses to accommodate the needs of handicapped individuals so they can function in jobs.

Adaptations of the Working Environment to the Handicapped

This phase or rehabilitation has two parts--the first being the obvious need for accessibility to the work premises, and the second being the procedures for rehabilitation engineering whereby specific jobs or tasks are restructured to accommodate particular handicapped persons or in some cases a group of persons.

A barrier free environment includes building accessibility which conforms with the American National Standards Institutes (ANSI) specifications for making buildings and facilities accessible to and usable by the physically handicapped. These specifications were developed in cooperation with the President's Committee on Employment of the Physically Handicapped and the National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, and were approved by ANSI in 1961. They were used as a basis for the Architectural Barriers Act of 1968 (P.L. 90-480) which had as its purpose insuring that certain buildings financed with federal funds are designed and constructed to conform with the specifications. The standards were reaffirmed in 1971, but have recently been revised and are in the final stages of being approved by the American National Standards Institute.

A major requirement for adapting the working environment to the handicapped is making sure that it is agreeable to the physically disabled. This implies removing architectural barriers which hinder or exclude persons with severe mobility problems and those in wheelchairs from getting into the work area--such as steps, curbs, lack of convenient parking spaces, narrow walkways, small or hard to open doors, inaccessible toilet facilities, drinking fountains and telephones that are too high. It implies installing ramps and elevators, colored lights to replace bells and buzzers to accommodate the deaf, and braille symbols or other raised sensory devices for the blind. It may mean signs in color codes or pictures to accommodate the mentally retarded. In addition to general accessability to the facility there are needs relating to work area accessibility including access to the restaurant and snackbars if provided to non-handicapped; and access to the administrative areas and telephones.

There are a number of inexpensive ways of overcoming architectural barriers for both renovating existing and designing new facilities. In fact for new construction, there is often no additional cost involved. A wealth of information on barrier free designs for all types of facilities can be obtained from the Architectural and Transportation Barriers Compliance Board, HEW, Washington, D.C. 20201; the National Center for a Barrier Free Environment, 7th and Florida Ave., N.E., Washington, D.C. 20002; the National Easter Seal Society for Crippled Children and Adults Information Center, 2023 Ogden Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60612; the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development, Washington, D.C. 20410, and the Department of Transportation, Washington, D.C. 20590.

In addition to the general accessibility to the facility and working areas, there are modifications that reasonably can be made to a job itself to accommodate an individual. It could mean a modification to the equipment or to a procedure. The decisions as to appropriate modifications can be made with the vocational rehabilitation counselor or other experts who specialize in bioengineering and job restructuring. These specialists are usually associated with hospitals or physical medicine centers. Equipment could be modified by raising or lowering the height of a chair or installing a knee-lever instead of a hand-lever on a particular piece of machinery; a procedure could be changed by adjusting the working hours for the individual or developing a buddy system with another employee for performing a two or more step task if there is part of a task the handicapped person cannot accomplish.

Adapting the Individual to the Working Environment

The process of adapting the individual to the working environment often requires a coordinated aproach among medical or dental staff, bio-engineers, technicians, educators, physical and occupational therapists and others in which disabled persons are equipped with prosthesis which increase body function. With the growth of plastics and electronics a wealth of devices have been designed to assist persons with physical deficiencies. The securing and design of these devices along with the training of the handicapped person in the use of an appliance aid is a cooperative effort among disciplines and agencies. There are many aspects to this effort. Firstly, the disabled youth with his or her sensitivities must be motivated to receive the device. Young people, especially adolescents, due to peer pressure and the like are sensitive to attitudes of their peer group and are often resistant to artificial devices which call attention to their differences. It has been observed in cerebral palsied classes for the orthopedically handicapped that adolescent students often have the desire to abandon their braces and head helmets which they used regularly during their younger years. For the hearing impaired, designers of hearing aids are developing less and less conspicuous ear fittings. Artificial limbs are more cosmetically designed. Most important, however, are the months and sometimes years that take place for training the handicapped person in the best use of the prosthesis. Plastic fittings modeled to the contour of the body are now designed to help individuals gain more power in sitting and sometimes standing positions to strengthen the function of other muscles. An apparatus once designed may require intensive training from an occupational or physical therapist, or other specialist until the movements become natural. A handicapped person with a deformed palate who has been provided with an oral prosthesis may need extensive speech therapy. A student who has been disfigured due to severe burns or other facial injuries may need plastic surgery as well as training in application of cosmetics to appropriately minimize the disfigurement.

The importance of rehabilitation counseling to the student and the family during this crucial period cannot be underestimated. The opportunity for benefitting from restorative devices and treatment must be made known to them; individual evaluation by the specialists must be arranged; the resources for paying for the plan must be worked out with the family; even arranging for the transportation to a center where a device is to be made can be a problem which requires special counseling; and assisting an individual to psychologically and physically adjust to the device or procedure may be a delicate task.

If the student is in a vocational or even prevocational program much of the psychological counseling and training in using a prosthetic or other device or appliance can take place during this period. In many communities, the special education in cooperation with the vocational education program can provide this supportive service.

Davis and Ward in their report on vocational education of handicapped students emphasize the policy of providing modifications in the training environment, classrooms or work-training site to accommodate the handicapped (P. 54-55). They propose that "local education agency policies should include making modifications as needed in scheduling, curriculum, equipment, and facilities to enable handicapped students to participate successfully in vocational education programs." They recommend: scheduling modifications such as flexible scheduling of students to permit program entrance/ exit appropriate with progress; curriculum modifications including task analysis of occupations to identify possible modification in instruction, equipment, or methods; equipment/facilities modifications such as signals that are sound rather than sight, or special safety devices such as guardrails around moving parts of a machine, or simplified instructions for the mentally retarded. The report stresses that any physical modifications made within the classroom should be transferable and feasible in the normal and usual employment setting. Another section of the report (P. 64) recommends that provisions be made to adapt vocational education shop equipment to meet the needs of individual handicapped students, and again stresses that vocational programs should "always attempt to create a physical environment resembling as closely as possible that found in industry, thus allowing the development of skills as they are used in industry." They warn that when accommodating students in vocational programs, "training programs should not be so special that their duplication would impose undue hardship on employers," thus lowering the student's chances for finding employment.

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Research in Job Modification

An article by N.E. Cooper in the International Labor Review (1977) presents the desirability of an interdisciplinary system under the leadership of the vocational rehabilitation counselor for the reintegration of handicapped workers with assistive devices. The author describes a total care concept in which the vocational rehabilitation counselor is included as a member of the prosthetic team alongside the surgeon, the prosthesist, the psychotherapist, the psychologist and the social worker. Through this concept Cooper states that "not only can the handicapped person be prepared for re-entry into active life and trained in the use of the technical aid in daily living, he (the counselor) can also be consulted at each stage of the rehabilitation process.

The next phase in the effort for employment of the individual is the "selective placement" process. Cooper describes this as matching the worker and his residual abilities (including the benefit he derives from a suitable prosthetic appliance or technical aid) with the physical and mental requirements of prospective jobs. It. . .stresses what the worker is capable of doing rather than his limitations.

The field of job engineering, technically known as the ergonomic approach, involves according to Cooper the analysis of work posture, movement, effort and stress as well as suggestions for modifications in design that reduce wear and tear on the human organism." which gives severely handicapped a wider range of employment opportunities, from which many persons would otherwise be excluded. Cooper sets forth the following principles in planning adaptations:

(a) Where a worker finds it difficult to perform a task because of a physical (but non-sensory) handicap, the task should either be redesigned so as to be less demanding or be adapted to allow the worker to use a different limb (or part of his body).

(b) Where the impairment is sensory, steps should be taken to convey signals in such a way that the worker can use those of his senses that are still intact.

(c) Where a mental or emotional handicap prevents a worker from taking necessary decisions, it may be possible to simplify the work or to organize it in such a way that another worker takes the more important decisions.

The following paragraph in Cooper's article describes some of the simple adaptations which can be made.

> "Numerous simple adaptations have been devised for those with limb limitations. Among the common examples are pedals, manual levers, power-assisted controls, access ramps, pulleys and lifts. For those with impaired vision or hearing the importance of utilizing residual abilities cannot be overemphasized. Magnifying devices and instructions in large print are particularly useful to those with defective vision but who are not blind. The same can be said of the elimination of random noise for the hard of hearing. If for any reason these remedies are not practicable, it will be necessary to address the signal to a sense which the worker possesses. Among the adaptations that can be carried out for those with mental or emotional handicaps are breaking down complex jobs into simple component tasks and introducing choice-restricting devices always supported by intensive, patient training."

Cooper describes many specific types of devices for the orthopedically handicapped including devices from the commercial field such as a knee-action typewriter shift-key mechanism for a one-armed typist or a special telephone for persons without arms. He also includes a variety of new technological devices which can enable blind persons to function in complex jobs.

Several research centers have been developed to provide bioengineering services for the disabled. One of the laboratories in job development and productivity for the disabled in under the direction of Kalisankar Mallik of the Job Development Laboratory Rehabilitation Research and Training Center, George Washington University Medical Center, Washington, D.C. During the past decade Mallik has had amazing success in placing handicapped youth in jobs through his research and demonstration projects in bioengineering.

One project involved a training model in which cost-effective bio-engineering techniques with the concept of vocational possibilites were applied to 24 severely disabled adolescent students at the Sharpe Health School in Washington, D.C.

Specific aims included: (Final Report, Page 2)

1) To provide a basis for enhanced educational and vocational possibilities through the application of bioengineering techniques in redevelopment or orthotic devices for adolescent developmentally disabled students who have severe physical limitations;

2) To demonstrate that through modification of the environment with adaptive devices, developmentally disabled students can be trained to function in a productive manner, thereby enhancing the quality of their lives;

3) To eliminate years of inactivity, unemployment, and dependence on family care for these students through early evaluation of work potential and by developing productive skills during the prevocational years;

4) To promote better parental understanding of the disabled adolescent student's potential and to redirect the family's thinking about immediate, future, and long-range goals for these students.

The Final Report of this project describes and depicts some of the adaptive devices developed for these students. He reports that eight of the project participants were placed in clerical positions under the summer youth employment program.

Another report of Mallick's research on job development and enhanced productivity describes a model for placing severely disabled persons in competitive employment. It was tested with 116 clients who were considered by the state vocational rehabilitation agencies to be too severely disabled for employment. Disabilities included spinal cord injury, cerebral palsy, multiple sclerosis, muscular dystrophy, cerebral vascual accidents and arthritis. A project team consisted of a vocational counselor/job placement specialist, an occupational therapist/evaluator, and a rehabilitation engineer. The procedures involved client evaluation, job development, job analysis, job-client matching, client's vocational skill training, equipment and job site adaptations, placement and follow along services as well as developing homebound job placement models for some of the clients. In regard to "Equipment and Job Site Adaptions" and "Placement and Follow Along Services" Mallik writes: (P. 7)

> Every job requires some physical activity, however minimal. If the severely physically disabled client is to perform job tasks at the same level of productivity as his able-bodied counterpart, modification of the environment to accommodate the client's physical limitations is often necessary. Adaptations range from very minimal (such as adjusting the height of a desk so that a wheelchair can slide under) to adapting equipment and customizing the work space with many adaptations. Unfortunately, there is a lack of commercially designed, low cost adaptations. Consequently, it is often necessary to custom design low cost adaptations which have immediate and practical usage in the work setting."
>
> Once a client begins working on the job, many adjustments must occur. The client must integrate the worker role into his repertoire of behavior. He/she must learn to interact with co-workers and supervisors and overcome attitudinal barriers. This entails making a self-adjustment and helping others to accept him/her as a productive worker despite physical limitations. Finally, the client must learn to use the adaptive equipment and to function in a physical environment that is new. The project vocational counselor/ coordinator can help the client by closely following the progress that is made from the client's and employers' perspectives. Immediate intervention when problems occur can alleviate major crises.

From 1974-1977, the project accepted 116 severely disabled persons. With the results that it successfully placed 79 clients- 39 in competitive employment and 40 in homebound positions. Since initial placement, 20 of the 40 homebound have joined the regular work force. With the aid of low cost modifications, the clients are reported to be working at a productivity rate equal to non-disabled employees performing the same jobs. Mallick further reports that the type of jobs for which these clients were equipped and trained were at an employment entry level well above the minimum wage. The positions included such occupations as computer programming, microfilming, insurance claims adjustment, proofreading, editing. Employers included information centers, federal libraries, insurance companies, universities, data processing companies, printing firms and others. While this project was geared to the adult population many of whom had been unemployed for some years, the types of positions in which these individuals were placed in and the job entry level described is applicable to post secondary students, and some secondary students.

Other centers where engineering aids are being developed include the Rehabilitation Engineering Center at Texas Institute for Rehabilitation

Research in Houston and the Cerebral Palsy Research Foundation in Wichita, Kansas.

Modifications in Other Areas Which Promote Independence

At this point mention should be made that advances are rapidly being made in other related areas of independent functioning for the handicapped. It is not the purpose of this report to go into these areas but to only mention them and refer to the bibliography for materials in these areas. This includes modifications that promote independent living for the handicapped, for sports and recreation, as well as for driving automobiles. In the process of providing training for the whole individual, these areas should not be neglected. Some rehabilitation counselors for youth have noted the correlation between independent living and job productivity.

Another area of development which should not be overlooked is that of use of leisure time for a handicapped person. Some researchers have noted a high correlation between availability of leisure time activities and productivity. During the training period it is important to sponsor appropriate recreation and leisure time activities for handicapped students so that they can acquire skills in hobbies, recreation, sports, cultural and social activities. With emphasis on accessability, there are many parks, museums, recreation areas and sports activities that have made adaptations to accommodate the physically and mentally disabled. The National Endowment for the Arts is emphasizing accessibility to the arts for handicapped persons both in the area of art appreciation; or art participation in painting, music, drama, dancing, and the like. In addition to promoting art as a career goal for many handicapped, field of the arts is advocated as areas in which all handicapped persons should participate as a lifetime goal.

Summary and Conclusions

With modifications and adjustments at the training sites and work sites, adaptations can be made which enhance the potential for handicapped individuals or group of individuals for employment. There are also numerous assistive devices tailored to a handicapped individual's personal needs which compensate for deficiencies. Modifications or adaptations for employment can be made without sacrificing performance demanded by an employer. They can me made reasonably.

There are bioengineers, technicians, and researchers who are constantly designing assistive devices. These include prostheses for amputees, body fittings to help posture, orthotoc appliances for holding and manipulation, optorators for palate deformities, braille calculator machines and opticons for the blind, to name a few. Psychological and other counseling is needed in assisting handicapped to adjust to and use these devices.

Experts are available for job modifications, whereby through task analyses, job adaptations can be made to accommodate the capability of individual handicapped persons or classes of handicapped. It may mean modification to a piece of equipment, such as adjusting the height of a seat or attaching a lever to a machine. It may mean relocating the place where the person sits or works in a job setting. It may mean recommending a procedural modification which does not interfere with productivity such as adjusting work time of a handicapped individual, allowing for rest time, or initiating a buddy system between a handicapped and non-handicapped in performing a set of tasks.

As institutions, business and industry are becoming sensitized to the need for accessibility for handicapped workers, more and more architectural barriers to facilities are being overcome. The American National Standards Institute is about to release a revised set of specifications relating to accessibility for handicapped persons. Many resources are available to provide technical assistance in planning for building as well as program accessibility.

In planning employment and job modifications, the concept of the need for counselors and planners to think of the total lifestyle of an individual becomes increasing important. Independent living for handicapped persons and their leisure time activities appear to be closely related to job efficiency. Communities are making modifications to recreation areas and housing facilities to increase handicapped persons' ability to participate in the mainstream of society. This should be encouraged.

CETA programmers for handicapped youth should take advantage of all areas of expertise, particularly through the rehabilitation counselors, in arranging for job areas. Staff development for CETA prime sponsored projects employees should be included in in-service seminars and workshops.

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CHAPTER IX

INCENTIVES FOR THE PRIVATE SECTOR

The Need

At the present time there is a pressing need to involve the private employment sector in giving job opportunities to the handicapped, especially handicapped youth. Providing disabled youth with occupational training within the private sector and giving them an opportunity to compete for regular jobs during their formative years can have an enormous impact on influencing their career development. The public sector because it has been more influenced by laws and regulations which govern their employment practices has made noticeable advances in employment for the handicapped in mainstream occupational areas, however, there is still a long way to go. Only marginal efforts within the private sector are noticeable. In order to implement the concept of the rights to qualified handicapped to job opportunities equal to the nonhandicapped steps must be taken to gain greater participation among the private sector. Priority must be now placed on increasing participation among the corporate, business, and industrial world.

Employment statistics reinforce the need for greater job opportunity for handicapped which reveal that according to estimates from the Social Security data, the Department of Labor and Census data, "25 percent of all individuals not in the labor force and one-quarter of all unemployed are disabled, as are 13 percent of all welfare recipients. (Bowe, 1977). Past experience has shown that for the most part, handicapped workers have been relegated to sheltered workshops, menial low-paying jobs or are unemployed resulting in the majority of handicapped persons living at the poverty level.

Prevalence of Negative Attitudes

The greatest difficulty which job-placement specialists have found in their efforts to place handicapped persons in jobs is the prevailing negative attitudes of prospective employers, especially in the private sector. Employer fears and anxieties mount when confronted with a handicapped applicant. With their prime emphasis on productivity and profit, invariably qualified non-handicapped individuals are selected over qualified handicapped persons. Most frequently cited reasons for rejecting handicapped applicants are cost related factors--with the feeling that insurance and workman's compensation costs would rise, that absenteeism would be high, that accident rates would increase, that productivity would be slowed down. Other reasons for rejecting handicapped applicants though not always verbalized, are feelings that handicapped persons, especially those with abnormal physical appearances would cause distractions and irritations among other employees and thus lower productivity.

Public Awareness Campaigns

To offset discriminatory practices advocates for the handicapped have launched public awareness campaigns. These efforts over a period of years have involved business and industrial organizations and employers in the problems and process of employing the handicapped, have involved many potential employers in cooperative work-study and on-the-job training activities relating to the handicapped, have developed exemplary projects for employing the disabled and eventually promoted laws which provide incentives to hire qualified handicapped.

One of the major public awareness programs for combating negative attitudes toward employment of the handicapped has been carried on by the President's Committee on Employ the Handicapped (PCEH). The activities of this Committee, initiated during the 1930's are directed at employers throughout the nation. Its slogans "It's good ability not disability that counts" and "Hire the Handicapped, it's good business" have become popular phrases in all parts of the country. Through the activities of the PCEH, in conjunction with its network of Governors' Committees for Employment of the Handicapped many employers and business organizations have joined in partnerships with the disabled and their advocate groups in promoting employment opportunities. Through the annual national and state conferences, poster contests, high school essay contests and the like, the message regarding the employment capabilities of qualified handicapped is presented in positive terms to the general public. Based on attendance and performance records employers are told that qualified handicapped employers tend to be rather stable employees, therefore it's good business to hire the handicapped. Emphasis is on the cost effectiveness as an incentive to their employability.

Demonstration and Exemplary Projects

Many articles and descriptions of successful demonstrator and exemplary vocational training and rehabilitation projects carry a common theme. Where employers are actually involved in the conduct of the project, good results seemed to be attained with many trainees ultimately securing unsubsidized employment. Thus it appears that a major incentive for increasing the number of employed handicapped is by involving potential employers and their representatives organizations in developing occupational training programs. Employers as a group, in addition to being concerned for business costs, are also public minded citizens and if approached on a personal level will respond to reasonable civic demands that do not significantly interfere with their business interests. Some employers through their own advertising are even able to capitalize on their fairmainded employment practices.

Tax Incentives

However, in spite of public awareness and the occasional involvement by some employers in vocational training programs, unemployment among qualified handicapped still persists as a major problem. In a new effort to encourage employers to hire more handicapped, legislators are now designing tax incentives. Two types of tax incentives have been enacted by Congress as part of the Internal Revenue Act amendments--a business deduction for accessibility and a tax credit relating to the employment of handicapped persons.

(1) Business Deduction

The purpose of the tax deduction for removal of architectural barriers, is to make facilities and public transportation vehicles more accessible for use by the handicapped. Through this program a tax incentive is provided to owners of facilities or vehicles for removal of architectural barriers. Up to $25,000 may be deducted from income for costs incurred in removing architectural barriers or for a public transit vehicle. Expenses for which deductions may be made include parking lots, ramps, walks, toilets, stairs, doors, water fountains, public telephones and elevators providing these installations or construction conform to prescribed standards. Unless renewed by Congress under pending legislation, this provision of the Tax Reform Act of 1976 expires on December 31, 1979.

(2) Targeted Jobs Tax Credit

The second tax incentive is a targeted jobs credit (TJTC) for hiring certain categories of handicapped or others from groups with a high unemployment rate. Members of this targeted group include vocational rehabilitation referrals, supplemental social security income (SSI) recipients, general assistance recipients, and youths participating in cooperative education programs. Definitions of each of these groups are contained in the tax instructions as well as procedures for certifying that an employee is a member of a targeted group. Deductions are based on qualified wages earned during the years 1979 and 1980. They are equal to fifty percent of the first year wages and twenty-five percent of the second year wages up to $6000.

All schools with vocational and cooperative education programs serving handicapped need to be reminded of the tax credit for employers of students. It is necessary for schools to complete a Certificate of Youth Participation for each student (IRS Form 6199). For persons eligible under vocational rehabilitation, the State employment agencies will be responsible for certification of eligible employees.

In order to make the credit as appealing as possible to a wide range of employers, the legislation establishes certification procedures which relieve the employers of unnecessary paper work and the burden of providing to the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) that the individual is a member of a targeted group. Therefore the State Employment Security Agency has been designated as the certifying agency.

The Targeted Jobs Tax Credit Program was designed as an additional tool that can be used by CETA prime sponsors to help eligible participants move

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from subsidized employment and training programs into the private sector employment. TJTC is also intended to assist the State Employment Security Agency and other state and local agencies to place clients in private sector jobs.

Whether or not this program is an effective incentive depends on the extent of cooperation in implementing the legislation among the related agencies. Public education is needed for employers and the staff of government local and state agencies as its implementation is so dependent upon the commitments and team approach in utilizing the benefits. Already we have heard rumblings that employers fear that the time spent on the paper work and hiring procedures would be more costly than the wage factor, thus increasing costs of productivity. With proper education amidst the business world, we hope that this incentive will be given a chance to prove itself and be extended beyond 1980.

Employer Involvement

Other incentives for employment of handicapped have been discussed in previous sections of this report. They include such activities as work-study or cooperative programs were employers join educators and rehabilitators in placing handicapped in supervised jobs on worksites in which the wages are subsidized by the sponsoring agency. These types of joint programs in which the employer or their representatives play a major role in policy making induce many employers to become involved in employment training programs for handicapped persons, and to learn which types of joint programs in which the employer or their representatives play a major role in policy making induce many employers to become involved in employment training programs for handicapped persons, and to learn which types of jobs are suitable or can be modified for handicapped individuals. The participation process can help them overcome their initial negative attitudes in relation to handicapped persons and to determine in some cases certain jobs which might possible be better handled by handicapped rather than non-handicapped persons. It also can help them get to know a handicapped person as an individual with his or her own personality where the presence of a disability fades away. Other ways to involve the private sector is to place civic minded business and industry representatives on advisory committees of agencies and advocacy groups relating to the handicapped. An increasing number of state and local volunteer committees are being set up to implement programs for the handicapped. Private sector representatives can also be given an increasing role in making decisions in local and regional planning for vocational opportunities for the handicapped. An important consideraion in training handicapped for jobs relates to the job market within a region or locality where private sector representatives can be most helpful in setting goals. At the actual job placement level, a potential employer can assist the vocational counselor in the careful matching of a person to a job. The private sector employment community can play a major role in insuring that the handicapped are qualified for the job opportunities.

Responsibility of Educational, Rehabilitation and Job-Training Personnel

In order to interest employers in handicapped students and clients, the professional interagency staff of the educational, vocational, rehabilitation, and job-training agencies who are preparing these students for employment must work with the employment community with great care. It requires that they are careful in promoting qualified applicants for the jobs, that they work with the employer for careful matching of a job to a handicapped individual, that the applicant they sponsor meet the employer's productivity needs, that they are ever more alert to where a handicapped worker's competencies can help to reduce employer overhead and costs. An essential component for any training and job placement program for the handicapped is the follow-up activities which take place to insure compatibility between the employee and his employer. In some cases additional counseling or a minor adjustment can overcome a difficulty. In other instances an employee may need to be recalled or retrained. Good relations between the world of training and the world of work can help overcome barriers to employment for handicapped youth.

Summary and Conclusions

Exemplary programs have shown that handicapped, if given proper training can be as qualified for meaningful jobs within the private sector as are non-handicapped. Statistics, however, show that the handicapped as a group are among the persons living at the poverty level. The greatest difficulty the handicapped have faced in being placed into jobs has been the negative attitudes of employers. Public awareness campaigns have helped to open employment opportunities to the handicapped. Tax incentives giving business deductions to employers who have modified their facilities to employ handicapped as well as providing tax credits for hiring certain categories of handicapped youth and adults are also promoting employment within the private sector.

Involving employers of their representatives in decision making bodies, advisory councils, training activities and overall community efforts in behalf of the handicapped can help overcome their fears and reluctance about hiring handicapped. Overt employer interest in the handicapped can be an incentive to handicapped youth to remain in school as long as possible to acquire employable skills and attitudes. With their rights to employment being protected under affirmative action laws, students must be assured quality training in job skills and attitudes which enable them to compete along with the non-handicapped for the job openings. Within each community employers and job-training institutions must cooperate to implement these objectives. Public education to overcome negative attitudes toward handicapped persons by employers and the general public must be an on-going effort. Providing incentives to employers can only partially solve the problem of increasing employment for the handicapped in the private sector.

CETA prime sponsors in conjunction with the Employment Service staff can become a major force for promoting jobs for handicapped youth in the private sector. Their personnel are much closer to the daily needs of the business and industry job market than are rehabilitation or educational staff. Prime sponsor agencies can develop competencies among their staffs to bridge the gap between school and jobs for handicapped youth. They can focus on the types of training needed, the vacancy gaps, and can more easily monitor and follow-up the handicapped youth who are placed in jobs. They can arrange job readjustment or retraining when needed. Local communities should encourage CETA programs to develop model programs in job-training, placement and follow-up of handicapped youth in the private sector. With careful coordination with local educational agencies, with community colleges and others, CETA programs can serve as change agents in directing established institutions to more relevant and quality programs for handicapped students. CETA can indeed be a powerful force in improving job-training for the handicapped and in serving the private sector within needed qualified manpower.

The participation process could encourage employers to increase their efforts at job-placement for handicapped, especially the youth. Affirmative action is expected to be a major incentive inducing employers to recruit and employ handicapped individuals. Vocational education and rehabilitation counselors along with the job-training and placement personnel have major responsibilities for helping employers to overcome their fears, to work carefully with them in the overall training and placement process, matching students and job applicants appropriately with the job openings. Good relations between professional staff who are preparing youth for job opportunities and the potential employers are essential.

CETA prime sponsors have a golden opportunity in becoming involved in employer training efforts related to affirmative action by increasing employer knowledge and participation in youthwork opportunities for handicapped individuals. They should realize every opportunity to work closely with the private sector in developing an awareness as to the potential of qualified handicapped applicants. Prime sponsors or their representatives should sponsor conferences, meetings, and job fairs or the like with employers to develop positive attitudes and to gain insight and knowledge about the handicapped.

The extent to which handicapped youth are given employment will undoubtedly be related to the extent to which youth in general are employed. As employment opportunities for the larger youth universe increase, so will employment opportunities for handicapped youth. Handicapped must be encouraged to remain in school as long as possible to acquire employable skills and attitudes. With their rights to employment being protected under law the community effort by employers and training institutions together must make every effort to assure quality training to handicapped so that they become sufficiently qualified to compete along with the non-handicapped for the job openings. Public education to overcome negative attitudes toward handicapped persons by employers and the general public must be an on-going effort. Providing incentives to employers can only partially solve the problem of increasing employment opportunities for the handicapped in the private sector.

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CHAPTER X

ADVOCACY AND CONSUMER PARTICIPATION

The Concept of Advocacy

The concept of advocacy in behalf of the handicapped has become extremely popular. In general advocacy is an effort whereby a cause is pleaded in behalf of an individual or group of individuals or whereby a person or group of persons interact with a system in order to promote a system change. Advocating for better conditions for the handicapped has become a priority among current social reforms as demonstrated by the many federal and state programs being initiated. A common thread among all these programs is for handicapped individuals to have the opportunity to participate in so far as possible in the mainstream of society. Community programs and group homes are replacing residential institutions; regular class placement with supportive services are replacing segregated special classes, training for jobs in regular vocational education programs is replacing training in sheltered workshops for school aged students, and now job placement in regular jobs is being made available to the handicapped rather than being unemployed or in subsidized jobs. Through increased accessibility to buildings and transportation, the world of the non-handicapped is gradually becoming available to the disabled.

These social innovations of the last two decades came about largely as a result of various types of advocacy--presures from organized groups that vocalized the needs of the handicapped--which has had in and of themselves an evolutionary history. In the early days, the handicapped were helped through charitable groups and agencies such as Kiwanis Clubs who pleaded the cause of their charges for additional services. As the demands for more and better quality services grew, as waiting lists developed causing exclusions and rejects from programs, the parents and friends of the handicapped began to organize. The Associations for Retarded Citizens and United Cerebral Palsy Association affiliates which organized during the 50's and 60's were composed primarily of parents. In addition to providing direct services to meet primary needs, these groups soon took on the role of advocating for expanded services and better quality within the regular systems--education, health, welfare, housing, recreation and others. With denial and exclusion of service still persisting parents began to seek recourse through the courts--a process which resulted in astounding success.

Legal Advocacy and Court Decrees

We are now familiar with numerous class action and other suits that have mandated inclusion of handicapped in our social systems, have brought about legislative reforms and have literally revolutionalized the service delivery systems by forcing open doors to the handicapped. Among the famous law suits pursued by parents, organizations and legal agencies are the Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children (PARC) v. Commonwealth of Pennsylvania; and Mills v. Board of Education (D.C.) The decisions handed down in these cases defined the rights of children as follows: (Bilkin 1974)

> Children with special needs have a right to an education. Parents must be informed when a child is to be placed in a special class or if the child is to be excluded.
>
> The State has the responsibility to inform parents of their rights.
>
> The State has the responsibility to identify and serve (educationally) all children with special needs. Lack of funds shall not be a sufficient excuse to deny educational programs for children with special needs.
>
> The State may not postpone the time of a child's entry to public school for reason of a "handicap".
>
> Any change in a child's educational program shall be subject to a fair hearing.

The Wyatt v. Stickney (Partlow case) defined the following rights:

> Residents shall have the right to habilitation, including medical treatment, education, and care, suited to their needs, regardless of age, degree of retardation or handicapping condition.
>
> Each resident has a right to an habilitation program which maximizes the person's human abilities and enhances his or her abilities to cope with the environment.

> No person shall be admitted to the institution unless a prior determination shall have been made that residence in the institution is the least restrictive habilitation setting for that person.

Child Advocacy

About the same time as the early court cases were being heard, the child welfare professionals, also alarmed by the increasing problems among children and youth, began promoting child advocacy as a means of resolving some of these issues.

The concept of child advocacy was given a push in the early 1970's by the HEW Joint Planning Committee for Children created by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (Office of Education), the National Institute of Mental Health, the Rehabilitation Administration and Children's Bureau. Of primary importance in stimulating this interest was the Report of the Joint Commission on Mental Health of Children, Crisis in Child Mental Health which described in glaring terms the plight of children throughout the country with serious emotional, mental, physical, and social problems; it further described the quantitative and qualitative inadequacies of the resources available to them, fragmentation and unresponsiveness of services and lack of information about needed services. A major recommendation of the Commission was for the creation of a child advocacy system. The Ad Hoc Interagency Child Advocacy Committee of HEW, an outgrowth of the Joint Planning Committee mentioned above, studied the child advocacy concept and attempted to influence its development by arranging for the agencies represented on the Committee to fund a group of model projects relating primarily to handicapped children and youth.

In 1972 the Columbia University School of Social Work under a grant from HEW undertook a baseline study of a child advocacy and attempted to develop some conceptualization of the process. Its report defined child advocacy as "an intervention on behalf of children in relation to those services and institutions that impinge on their lives." It described two major advocacy functions--namely, case advocacy which focuses on assuring help or service to families or individuals who need it, and class advocacy which focuses on changing policies procedures, personnel, rules, laws, and so forth. The report itself contains a review of a number of advocacy projects and an in-depth discussion of the role of various groups including the professionals in the advocacy effort. The report set forth some specific recommendations for the promotion of advocacy at various levels of program activity. Child advocacy can improve services and provision if it is better conceptualized, is given supportive structures, and is allowed to focus more systematically on its unique methods and processes. . .It should be promoted as a planned function, yet permitted to flourish as a spontaneous cause." (P. 123)

Some of the more effective prevailing advocacy groups include the ones conducted by the special interest organizations such as the National Association for Retarded Citizens, the United Cerebral Palsy Association, the Epilepsy Foundation, the National Easter Seal Society for Crippled Children and Adults. Many legal groups are now providing legal advocacy with legal advice and assistance in relation to implementing and defending legal rights of the handicapped; agencies such as National Center for Law and the Handicapped, the National Legal Aide and Defender Association, the American Civil Liberties Union, State or local legal services programs, and of course private lawyers. Of particular interest is the Disability Rights Center in Washington, D.C. which has as its main goal the enforcement of civil rights legislation passed by Congress to protect the handicapped against discrimination. It has taken on the task of concentrating on employment of handicapped persons by federal departments and agencies. The Center is also concerned about the safety and quality special equipment such as wheelchairs, hearing aids, prostheses and other products that are essential to the well-being of the disabled in his work or daily life.

Other important advocacy systems are the State Developmental Disabilities Protection and Advocacy Centers which operate under the Developmental Disabilities Program. These centers provide administrative as well as legal recourse to grievance and complaints.

Consumer Advocacy

Of special interest is the consumer or self-advocacy movement which has gained strength during recent years in which the handicapped themselves or their parents voice their own opinions and seek redress for themselves. Many blind and deaf individuals have become extremely skilled in self-advocacy and have promoted more interpreter and reader services in public activities.

Self-advocacy for the disabled received its greatest boost when the Rehabilitation Act of 1972 which contained expansions of programs for the severely disabled and sections prohibiting discrimination in programs was vetoed by the President. New similar legislation the following year was again defeated. These defeats gave rise to a number of action and coalition groups among the disabled themselves. This consumer movement took its mode from the civil rights movement so that marches and demonstrations took place in Washington and in other population centers in which the disabled were seeking services, legislation and also calling public attention to their needs. The ensuing result was passage of several pieces of legislation expanding services, insuring civil rights and prohibiting discrimination. Now it is also becoming common practice for policy making committees and advisory boards to include in their memberships disabled persons who can discuss pressing issues relating to the handicapped from personal experience.

A Systematic Approach To Advocacy

Several models of advocacy have been described in the literature. It appears that the process can be reasonably successful if approached in a logical systematic manner. Marie Moore describes one such system in AMICUS, May 1977 entitled Systems Change Advocacy. She defines advocacy "as insuring disabled persons their rights to appropriate services. The process of advocacy includes finding, accessing, and developing such services at the time and in the place they are needed. . .Intervention means bringing about changes that remedy the problems of not just one person, but all persons in the present and future who may have similar problems." The author provides the reader with a number of approaches for both class and case advocacy. In case advocacy she includes the citizen advocate, ombudsman, legal advocate, case manager advocate and protective services; in class advocacy she includes legislative advocacy, community organization advocacy, program brokerage, protective services, and consumer action advocacy.

The advocacy movement has reached the attention of legislative bodies which have responded with legislative programs for vocational and occupational training for handicapped youth. The CETA prime sponsors need to be knowledgeable about the advocacy groups within their states and local communities. If handicapped youth or their parents feel they are being denied access to job training opportunities, they will be seeking redress through the due process procedures. CETA prime sponsors can be part of the efforts to insure the rights of the handicapped for job opportunity.

Summary and Conclusions

Advocacy has developed as a system that interacts with service delivery systems to bring about changes or helps individuals to secure appropriate services. This process, which has been used in behalf of the needs of the handicapped in recent years, has achieved some dramatic results. Legal advocacy has resulted in many decisions favoring the handicapped and resulting in systems changes. Class advocacy has resulted in many legislative reforms. New community programs, and the inclusion of handicapped in community activities enjoyed by the non-handicapped. Numerous activities relating to case advocacy have resulted in individuals benefiting from services which families were unable to achieve through their own efforts. The current trend is for handicapped to participate in decision making bodies by serving on policy making boards and committees to voice their needs based on their own experience.

CETA prime sponsors in developing any employment programs should follow the policy of including handicapped persons and their parents on the advisory committees as they develop training and job placement programs for their clients. They should hire qualified disabled people in administrative positions. The disabled community should have a major role in policy matters and decision making. CETA agencies should also work with advocacy groups and help establish priorities in improving employment opportunities for handicapped youth. The most successful advocacy programs seem to be based on a system approach to advocacy activities. CETA representatives should join forces with the disabled coalitions in promoting jobs for the handicapped in their local communities.

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CHAPTER XI

NEXT STEPS

This report contains a compendium of information relating to the education, rehabilitation and job training for handicapped youth. It traces the programmatic history from a voluntary, charitable and do-gooder approach on the part of society for a selected few individuals to one of entitlement for all. In spite of the mandates and efforts of recent years based on legislative authorizations and court decrees, we are entering the eighties without having viable implementation systems whereby each handicapped youth will have received appropriate education in accordance with his or her capabilities and interest, or will have acquired a marketable skill on a high enough level to assure the individual upon completion of school employment opportunities with potential for advancement. At this point in time, a handicapped youth who is adequately trained is prepared to enter the employment world, and has successfully acquired a meaningful job is the exception rather than the rule.

According to studies conducted during the early 1970's it had been revealed that only two-fifths of the mentally and physically disabled of employable age were employed during a typical year, compared with three-fourths of all nondisabled. Wages of employed handicapped have been about one-fifth lower than non-disabled counterparts, the figures increase during periods of economic crises such as high unemployment or high inflation. (Levitar and Taggard 1977). The impact of the recent programs in influencing significant improvement for the handicapped has been slow, but the effort has fostered a set of exemplary and innovative programs proving that there are viable methods which can result in productive lives for the majority of handicapped individuals.

Now we are faced with the question: To what extent can we achieve the goal of helping the majority of handicapped youth develop adequate skills that will enable them to become employable? To what extent can we gain the cooperation of the employers to give qualified handicapped youth opportunities for employment in meaningful occupations and advancement equal to the so called non-handicapped? What are the next steps CETA program administrators must take?

The literature analysis has revealed that our social system has input from many directions, from many agencies, from many points of view, from many sources. If the CETA program is to serve as a change agent, it must first decide whether it can achieve its results from cooperating within the existing structure or from taking independent action outside of the existing programs. I am recommending that the CETA agencies follow an evolutional approach starting at the present stage of development and building from this base rather than trying to reinvent the wheel. With the limited resources available to communities, it would be better for the CETA program to concentrate on the gaps which create barriers from school to work especially in the job training and placement area, rather than attempt to administer a comprehensive education, training and employment program. By developing functional coordination systems among the various agents of service delivery to assess needs, estimate resources, jointly develop goals, plan implementation strategies with optional choices and alternatives, and also arrange on-going evaluation, then the problems of training handicapped youth for gainful employment and assisting employers in the acceptance and advancement of qualified youth would not be an insurmountable task.

The Department of Labor's Manpower and Training Administration has been given a major responsibility for joining forces with education and rehabilitation systems in assisting handicapped youth to be adequately trained and prepared for employment, in working with employers in giving qualified handicapped youth an equal opportunity to be placed in jobs, to assist employers in non-discriminatory practices in recuitment, placement and advancement for handicapped, to help develop public awareness for accepting the handicapped in mainstream society, to help overcome negative attitudes, and to help handicapped youth overcome the barriers from school to work. The Department has been assigned the task of implementing programs aimed at reducing the unemployment and underemployment of the nations's handicapped. This means developing firm and definitive policies in cooperation with state and local governments.

A program of transition from school to work implies strong linkages with the educational system. The Commissioner of the U.S. Office of Education has announced a commitment for vocational education for the handicapped in which he calls for appropriate comprehensive vocational education for handicapped youth. The statement promotes the following criteria:

1. "The provision of appropriate comprehensive vocation education for handicapped is dependent upon all segments of the educational system. Elementary, secondary and adult-education must provide programs and services necessary for students to develop basic skills and make career choices. Vocational education must provide the education and training to develop occupational competancies.

2. "Appropriate comprehensive vocational education for the handicapped must include cooperative relationships between the educational sector and the employment sector to facilitate the transition from school to work.

3. "Appropriate comprehensive vocational education for handicapped persons will provide sequential educational instruction and training appropriate to the needs and progress of each handicapped individual.

4. "Appropriate comprehensive vocational education will, to the maximum extent possible, identify and eliminate factors such as attitudinal and environmental barriers, which determine to a large degree the impact that specific handicaps have on individuals."

A most important step would be for the Manpower and Training Administration to issue a complimentary commitment and criteria for accepting its challenge for insuring that the handicapped develop occupational competancies and subsequent placement in appropriate jobs. In cooperation with State and local agencies, both public and private as well as from national organizations it should develop a long range goal for the year 1990 at which time the number of unemployed handicapped youth will be reduced to the same ratio as that for all youth. A set of major objectives and milestones should be developed accompanied by plans for coordinated approaches for achieving the objectives.

Some of the important activities to be pursued during the decade would be:

1. A national needs assessment should be sponsored by MTA in conjunction with CETA relating to identifying the occupational and job-training opportunities for the total handicapped youth population, determining the extent to which these opportunities are available and being utilized, the appropriateness of these opportunities, their overall quality; it should determine the flaws within the system and assess the extent to which the needs are met or unmet, rate them in order of importance. The results of this assessment should be used as a tool by the MTA and CETA administrators in redefining objectives and assessing progress.

2. A similar assessment should be made concerning the employer capabilities for complying with affirmative action regulations, identifying the strengths and weaknesses in overcoming attitudinal as well as environmental barriers to employment for handicapped youth; it should assess the extent to which handicapped youth are finding unsubsidized jobs in both the public and private sectors, the rate and causes of successful or unsuccessful job adjustment, and the extent of career or occupational advancement; it should identify follow-up methods which encourage employers and handicapped to maintain their employment.

3. Representatives from the field of employment and labor should actively and visibly participate and interact at all levels--federal, state and local--in planning, developing, and implementing practices relating to the transition of handicapped youth from school to work.

4. An impact study should be made of the Social Security Supplementary Income program benefits to the handicapped to determine if under its recent liberalization policies it has resulted in a higher employment rate for handicapped youth.

5. Universities with competancies for training personnel for special education, vocational education for the handicapped and vocational

rehabilitation should be enlisted to provide both preservice and in-service training for manpower and job placement specialists.

6. CETA administrators and prime sponsors should take immediate steps for staff development workshops, seminars, in-service training programs to prepare their counseling and training staff--professional and paraprofessional persons--to be knowledgeable about the special unique needs of mentally and physically disabled individuals. Similarly the Employment Service Administration should provide special training for its employees to insure appropriate referral and placement service.

7. Training programs geared to employment practices for the handicapped should be established in cooperation with business and trade organizations, labor unions and continuing education schools to provide employers as well as union representatives in this area.

8. A viable set of policies for follow-up and placement of disabled school aged students should be established and implemented to insure work adjustment, job advancement, or job retraining when needed.

9. The Manpower and Training Administration should include a data base and information system containing major components of programs and statistics relating to the occupational training of mentally and physically disabled youth.

Based on this literature search and study, specific action steps for CETA administrators to use in promoting transition from school to work for handicapped young people are presented in the following charts. These contain a suggested but not all-inclusive list of recommendations, which fall under eight major categorical areas, namely, interagency coordination, occupational training, client and family support services, employer involvement, resources, personnnel training, public awareness and evaluation.

ISSUE	CETA ACTION STEPS
1.0 Coordination	It is recommended that CETA representatives participate in interdepartmental committees at all levels of government to promote viable linkages among agencies concerned with preparing handicapped youth for employment. 1.1 CETA representatives should participate on the Federal OE/RSA Task Force which is concerned with developing cooperative agreements between vocational education, special education and vocational rehabilitation for preparing handicapped for meaningful jobs. 1.2 CETA representatives should work with the above federal task force to include the CETA program in the cooperative agreements being proposed. 1.3 CETA representatives should participate on policy making committees at the State level which include education, rehabilitation, employment departments, and others concerned with handicapped youth training and employment to identify handicapped youth in need of vocational training, assess needs, identify resources within the state, determine the job market and manpower problems of the State, and jointly set priorities.

ISSUE	CETA ACTION STEPS
1.0 Coordination (Continued)	1.4 With the knowledge and insights gained from the implementation of the activities of 1.3, CETA representatives should participate in policy decisions and preparation of cooperative agreements relative to the allocation of available State funds relating to vocational education and job training for handicapped youth.
	1.5 CETA prime sponsors should participate in promoting and developing cooperative agreements at the local operational level for providing handicapped youth with a sequential education and vocational training program that will qualify the handicapped students with employable skills that will lead to paid jobs with potential for advancement.
	1.6 CETA prime sponsors and representatives should actively develop mechanisms that will involve representatives from business and industry in decision making bodies relative to occupational and job placement of handicapped youth.
	1.7 CETA representatives should actively cooperate with the Governors' and local committees on employment of the handicapped.
	1.8 CETA should enlist cooperation from the private sector such as business, industry and trade associations to provide job training and employment for qualified handicapped persons.

CETA	CETA ACTION STEPS
1.0 Coordination (Continued)	1.9 CETA should enlist cooperation of trade unions in accepting handicapped in union shops at entry levels commensurate with their training and qualifications. 1.10 CETA should work with management and labor in developing union contracts that would be non-discriminatory toward recruitment and employment of handicapped. 1.11 CETA representatives working with a handicapped trainee should become an active participant with the local school department of special education in the development of the student's IEP with emphasis on his/her job expectations and matching of the student to the job market. CETA should play a role in arranging job modifications and support services. 1.12 CETA representative should work closely with the local rehabilitation counselor in planning the job training program for each of its handicapped trainees. 1.13 Work with the Employment Service to develop a viable system which can be enforced in each employment office for follow-up services for each handicapped student placed to insure job adjustment or provision for retraining when the need is apparent.

ISSUE	CETA ACTION STEPS
1.0 Coordination (continued)	1.14 The Youth Service Division of the Manpower and Training Administration should link with CLOSER LOOK A Project of the Parents' Campaign for Handicapped Children and Youth to inform parents of handicapped youth throughout the nation of information and job or training opportunities through CETA and other job training programs.
2.0 Occupational Training	It is recommended that CETA representatives develop guidelines for program operators containing a comprehensive approach to occupational training for handicapped youth which discusses prevocational training, vocational assessment, models for skill development, job modification and job restructuring, support systems, and architectural and transportation accessibility.
	2.1 CETA program representatives should work with local school agencies in establishing prevocational training classes for out-of-school handicapped youth.
	2.2 Vocational assessment tests should be administered by qualified personnel.
	2.3 Prime sponsors should concentrate on activities which build good relations with the private sector.

ISSUE	CETA ACTION STEPS
2.0 Occupational Training (Continued)	2.4 Prime sponsors should try to analyze exemplary projects relating to occupational training and placement of handicapped youth and try to replicate and improve on successful components of these projects which seem applicable to their own Communities.
	2.5 In sponsoring exemplary projects, prime sponsors should take care that certain safeguards are built into each project such as matching the skills of an employee with a job; insuring that occupational training offered to the handicapped is compatible with the local job market; that follow-up services after job placement are provided.
	2.6 Prime sponsors should develop a cooperative mechanism with the local school administration which insures appropriate high school credits for occupational training programs completed under training agencies sponsored by CETA. At the same time CETA sponsors should be aware of school board requirements for accreditation and diplomas and assume responsibility for communicating this information to the training agencies.

ISSUE	CETA ACTION STEPS
2.0 Occupational Training (Continued)	2.7 Training agencies should enlist the help of the experts when arranging job modifications, job restructuring, or training handicapped persons in the use of assistive devices.
3.0 Support Services	It is recommended that for CETA funded projects client and family support services already available within the community be utilized and that CETA monies be used for support services only after it is determined that necessary support can not be provided from existing agencies. 3.1 CETA program representatives must be knowledgeable about resources available in local agencies and the process of providing an interagency, interdisciplinary coordinated approach to service delivery. 3.2 CETA prime sponsors must insure that program representatives have competencies in family and client counseling related to the needs of the mentally and physically disabled.

ISSUE	CETA ACTION STEPS
3.0 Support Services (Continued)	3.3 In cooperation with other related community agencies, prime sponsors should conduct a needs assessment of support services in the local area which can assist disabled youth and their families in the transition from school to work, identify the gaps in service so that CETA monies can focus on providing needed services.
	3.4 Care should be taken in all CETA sponsored programs that disability related support services are provided only after diagnostic appraisal has been completed and recommended by qualified professional staff.
4.0 Involvement Of Employers	It is recommended that CETA prime sponsors and their representatives foster positive working relationships with employers particularly those in the private sector and together plan and develop meaningful training programs which prepare disabled youth for work.
	4.1 In cooperation with employers, develop and implement strategies to increase the number of handicapped youth successfully placed in private sector jobs at the rate of 100 percent each year for the next five years.

ISSUE	CETA ACTION STEPS
4.0 Involvement Of Employers (Continued)	4.2 In cooperation with representatives from business, trade and industry develop an on-going public awareness campaign promoting employment for handicapped persons.
	4.3 CETA sponsors should arrange conferences for potential employers about employment practices for disabled persons including facility and job modification, interpersonal relationships between handicapped and non-handicapped, community resources; conferences interpreting affirmative action and tax incentives would also be helpful.
	4.4 CETA agencies should involve employers in the evaluation of exemplary projects and plan replication of successful components.
	4.5 Within each metropolis, CETA prime sponsors should concentrate on involving representatives from large corporations and industrial facilities in the effort to appropriately prepare the mentally and physically disabled youth for jobs.
5.0 Resources	CETA Prime sponsors should be thoroughly informed on all programs and resources relating to preparing handicapped youth for work and insure full utilization of these programs and services within their respective communities;

ISSUE	CETA ACTION STEPS
5.0 Resources (Continued)	5.1 A community information brochure of available resources and support systems for preparing and providing transition services from school to work should be available in each prime sponsor office.
	5.2 An up-to-date resource book on federal assistance programs, state and local assistance programs as well as private foundation assistance programs should be available in each prime sponsor office.
	5.3 Prime sponsor agencies should arrange technical assistance workshops to interested agencies on designated projects and evaluation systems.
6.0 Personnel Training	In cooperation with State agencies, CETA should determine the adequacy of qualified professionals and paraprofessionals personnel for job training, placement and transition services from school to work for disabled persons and arrange with institutions of higher education to provide appropriate training in this field to serve all localities, rural and urban, within the state.
	6.1 The estimated man-power needs for each locality within the state for training disabled youth should be determined.

ISSUE	CETA ACTION STEPS
6.0 Personnel Training (Continued)	6.2 In accordance with the best estimates as to types and numbers of personnel needed to increase the number of mentally and physically disabled youth at the rate of 100 percent a year for the next five years, CETA should arrange with institutions of higher education for in-service workshops, seminars, courses as well as preservice training for persons already in the field as well as persons who might be attracted to this field.
	6.3 Simulate similar continuing education courses or workshops for personnel officers and supervisors of corporations, businesses and industries to sensitize them to the problems and needs of the disabled in employment.
	6.4 Provide or stimulate transdisciplinary training for staff from various agencies including special education, vocational education, school guidance and counseling, vocational rehabilitation and personnel from CETA agencies.
7.0 Public Awareness	It is recommended that CETA prime sponsors and their representatives work closely with community and State level groups in developing public awareness for promoting employment for handicapped youth.

ISSUE	CETA ACTION STEPS
7.0 Public Awareness (Continued)	7.1 The prime sponsor should establish a public relations office which sponsors a speaker's bureau, works with the television, radio, newspapers and other media in informing the community about the advantages of job training and employment for the handicapped youth.
	7.2 CETA administrators, especially at the national and state levels should interrelate with the various professional organizations which are concerned with vocational and occupational training for the handicapped organizations such as the Council for Exceptional Children, the National Rehabilitation Association, the National Council on Vocational Education, the National Association of State Boards of Education.
	7.3 CETA prime sponsors should be aware of the various advocacy groups within the community which promote improved services for the handicapped.
	7.4 CETA prime sponsors should be involved with consumer groups composed of the disabled and their parents; they should include representatives from the advocacy groups on policy making boards.

ISSUE	CETA ACTION STEPS
7.0 Public Awareness (Continued)	7.5 CETA prime sponsors should focus public awareness on the positive aspects and abilities of the handicapped so that the public can build positive rather than negative attitudes toward handicapped individuals. 7.6 CETA agencies should place a major focus of public awareness effort over the next five years on the private sector employer.
8.0 Evaluation	CETA agencies should maintain on-going evaluation of all efforts to annually determine the extent to which major goals and objectives for the employment of handicapped youth are being achieved. 8.1 The Manpower and Training Administration should encourage CETA agencies to try to meet national priorities. 8.2 Each CETA sponsored project should have a well designed evaluation component which can indicate a project's strengths and weaknesses, and the extent to which it will achieve its objectives.

ISSUE	CETA ACTION STEPS
8.0 Evaluation (Continued)	8.3 The Manpower and Training Administration should initiate and maintain a computerized information system on evaluation outcomes of CETA funded youthwork demonstration projects relating to the handicapped. Included in the system should be information on the project focus, job training activities, support services, types of handicapped served, occupational placements, nature of job modifications, types of employers, employer participation, interagency coordination, staffing pattern, follow-up on client's work adjustment.

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Botterbusch, Karl F., Tests and Measurements for Vocational Evaluators University of Wisconsin-Stout, Materials Development Center, 1973, Menomonie, WI.

The psychometric tests included in this booklet were selected on the basis of a survey of test use among cooperative centers of the MDC.

Braun, Kurt, et. al., Improving Education and Employment Opportunities for the Handicapped: Expanding the Commitment of Vocational and

Special Education. Final Report., Illinois U.-Urbana, Bureau of Educational Research, June 1977, 142 p. 142 p., Urbana, IL.

Results are presented in a national workshop designed to improve education and employment opportunities for handicapped and disadvantaged persons by providing a setting for fifteen university teams (one from each of the ten U.S. Office of Education regions and five at large) to develop specific plans of action for the creation or expansion of programs to improve the preparation of vocational education teachers serving the special needs learner. Pre-workshop planning activities are described. Including a brief analysis of the 1976 workshop on vocational education for the special needs student. Workshop activities are described; these focused on seven individual presentations relative to special needs programs from three perspectives (vocational education, special education, and a local education agency), legislation affecting vocational education, and the preparation of professional educators. A report of team action planning and strategy sessions is also presented. An evaluation of the workshop follows, along with a report on post-workshop activities which occurred during the seven-month interim between the workshop and the final report. A forty-four page appendix contains a variety of forms used for the workshop: planning, review, and evaluation instruments; and a team report questionnaire.

Bregman, M., The use and misuse of vocational evaluation in the counseling process. In University of Pittsburgh, Research and Training Center in Vocational Rehabilitation, *Some recent advances and research in vocational evaluation*. Johnstown, Pennsylvania: Author, 1967.

Discusses the necessity for the counselor to have a clear understanding of the proper use of the evaluation process. Emphasizes that without proper understanding, the evaluation process will be misused by the counselor with results being irrelevant and inaccurate. Includes some background history of evaluation.

Brock, Robert J., *Preparing Vocational and Special Education Personnel to Work with Special Needs Students*: State of the Art 1977., U. of Wisconsin-Stout, 1977, 53 p., Menomonie, WI.

Presented is information gathered by questionnaire and direct telephone interviews on programs preparing vocational and special education personnel to work with special needs students. Outlined are data gathering procedures (sample questionnaire and interview forms are included); resulting data on operational programs, projected programs, programs with a mainstreaming emphasis, and programs which are judged not to be designed to prepare vocational/special education personnel; and observations and recommendations on program development, state teacher certification and university training program articulation, program dissemination, mandated requirements, and responses of interested persons. Listed among finding, is that program information and information about adapted or developed materials in vocational/special education are practically nonexistent. Appended are a teacher certification directory, abstracts on 20 operational programs, a listing of projected programs, and a listing of programs offering one or two mainstreaming or inservice courses.

Brock, Robert J., Vocational Education for the Handicapped: The University of Wisconsin-Stout Special Education Program includes Final Report, Wisconsin University-Stout, June 1978, 123 p., Menomonie, WI.

The University of Wisconsin-Stout Special Education Program prepares secondary teachers to teach vocational and life function skills. Incorporating vocational education, vocational rehabilitation, and special education into a single degree program, graduates facilitate the transition of handicapped individuals from school to the world of work. Followup studies of graduates suggest that teachers trained in this manner are more able to serve the needs of handicapped persons than teachers trained in the more traditional academic and elementary oriented programs.

Brolin, Donn E. and Kolstoe, Oliver P., The Career and Vocational Development of Handicapped Learners, Information Series no. 135, ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Center and Vocational Education, Columbus, OH, 1978, 80 p.

The state of the art of career education for handicapped persons was reviewed beginning with the events and developments which have aided in the growth of career education for the handicapped since 1971. Specific career education needs of the handicapped were identified, and the concept of career education was clarified. The study examined relevant research on the roles of occupation, citizen, family and avocation associated with persons who are deaf, hard-of-hearing, blind, partially sighted, cripped, health impaired, mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, learning disabled, or multi-handicapped. Research conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of various curricular approaches in this field was also studied. Finally, research in the areas of teaching counseling methods and career assessment, exploration and preparation for the handicapped was reviewed. The research indicated that only now are school systems beginning to retool and initiate a comprehensive array of services: infusion of total school resources, community participation, and family involvement. Based on past research and reviews of research in progress, ten generalizations were drawn. Three are as follows: (1) The majority of handicapped students who leave school are in danger of becoming either unemployed or underemployed in later life; (2) Currently there is considerable curricula variability in scope and sequence for career education program implementation. But more definitive guidelines and procedures are necessary upon which to build curricula; and (3) Parents appear to have a significant influence on the handicapped person's career development.

Brolin, Donn E., Ed., Life Centered Career Education-A Competency Based Approach, Council for Exceptional Children, 1978, Reston, Va.

A practical curriculum and materials guide to be used with both handicapped and non-handicapped students in upper elementary and secondary levels.

Brolin, Donn E., McKay, Donald J.; and West, Lynda, Trainer's Guide to Life Centered Career Education, Council for Exceptional Children, 1978, 272 p., Reston, Virginia

A training manual for Local school administrators planning to implement the Life Centered Career Education Program. Discusses orientation sessions, handicapping conditions, appropriate educational programming, and Career Education.

Brolin, Donn E., Vocational Preparation of Retarded Citizens, Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1976, 312 p., Columbus, OH.

Reviewed in the text are techniques and program models for vocational preparation of mentally retarded persons. Part I presents basic background information about mental retardation, the development of a work personality, vocational adjustment of the retarded, and available vocational services (such as educational and rehabilitation programs). The bulk of the document is contained in Part II which presents the basic techniques of vocational preparation. Individual chapters deal with the following strategies (with sample subtopics in parentheses): vocational counseling (theories and counseling techniques with the retarded), clinical assessment (medical, social, educational, and psychological assessment), work evaluation (intake interviews, situational assessment, and standardized vocational testing), work adjustment (behavior modification and precision teaching), job tryouts (advantages and limitations, and guidelines for program implementation), vocational training (vocational programs and research, and training in business and industry), and job placement and followup. Part III suggests approaches for conducting and evaluating secondary and postsecondary vocational preparation programs. Included in three appendixes is a description of a procedure for conducting a job analysis.

Bureau of Education For the Handicapped: Progress Toward A Free Appropriate Public Education-A Report to Congress on the Implementation of Public Law-94-142, The Education for All Handicapped, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare; Washington, D.C. 1979.

Caci, William P., A Work Experience Video Tape Satellite Project for EMR Students Final Report, Pennsylvania Research Coordinating Unit for Vocational Education, Harrisburg, PA, Dec. '77, 43 p.

A project produced and field tested a selected set of video tapes and instructional material illustrating actual student performances and job requirements while on a high school work experience program. Objectives were (1) to enhance on-the-job student performances via immediate audio and visual feedback, (2) to establish a library of realistic videotapes of students performing in local occupations and business, (3) to supply prevocational instructors with career awareness tools, (4) to illustrate to all interested parties the performance and degree of involvement of students in the work program, (5) both to provide prospective employers an overview of work program students and to compliment the involvement of employers now involved with the program, and (6) to bolster confidence and self-esteem of students in the work program, especially educable mentally retarded (EMR) students. Portable videotape equipment was used to tape performances of students actually working on their respective jobs. Unedited tapes were shown to students for work evaluation purposes. Then tapes were edited into ten-to-fifteen-minute presentations, and teacher packets of lesson plan material were developed for each. Packets and tapes were field tested at junior and senior high and college levels. The overall conclusion is that all objectives were met, with most success in objectives 3 and 6. A list of the tapes by occupation and three sample teacher packets are appended.

California Advisory Council on Vocational Education and Technical Training, Barriers and Bridges: An Overview of Vocational Services Available for Handicapped Californians, California Advisory Council on Vocational Education and Technical Training, 1977.

-Results are examined of an indepth analysis of three million disabled Californians. This publication describes both the positive and negative aspects of vocational services.

Campbell, J., Work evaluation in a community evaluation center. In University of Pittsburgh, Research and Training Center in Vocational Rehabilitation, Some recent advances and research in vocational education. Johnstown, Pennsylvania: Author, 1967.

Contains a brief description of the historical background of evaluation. Discusses four approaches to assessment: mental testing, job analysis, work sample, the situational approach, and their advantages and disadvantages. Also includes script from question and answer period following the presentation.

Campbell, L. Wayne. Education-Rehabilitation: A Joint Effort. In Cooperative Agreements between Special Education and Rehabilitation Services in the West, edited by G. Hensley and D. Buck, pp. 19-24. Boulder, Colo: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1968.

States that concern for the mentally retarded was originally expressed in programs within the school systems of the stated funded on an excess cost basis at the state level. The 1963 Federal Mental Retardation Bill and 1965 California Commission report provided broad base support from federal and state sources to services for the mentally retarded. Testimony before the state legislature indicated necessity for special education during high school years as a prerequisite for successful VR placement. Cities need for work-study programs. States that the state department of VR and education should initiate cooperative agreements formalized in contracts for services with local school districts.

Cawood, Liz Tilton (ed.), Work Oriented Rehabilitation Dictionary and Synonyms, Northwest Association of Rehabilitation Industries, 1975, 72 p., Seattle, WA.

Developed by representatives of work-oriented rehabilitation facilities in Alaska, Idaho, Oregon, and Washington. WORDS is designed to provide uniform communication base for those involved with work-oriented rehabilitation facilities. Over 250 terms commonly used in sheltered workshops and work activity centers are defined in clear, precise language.

Cegelka, Patricia Thomas, et al., Career Education Programming for the Handicapped: Cooperative Personnel Preparation. Final Report, Kentucky Univ.-Lexington, Div. of Vocational Ed., 1978, 225 pp. Lexington, KY.

-contains 11 presentations; reviews implications of career education for special ed, voc. ed., and teacher ed.; overview of federal commitments to voc. ed. and employment, legal implications for State Departments of Ed.; reviews mandate for EIP's; discusses voc. preparation services for adolescents with severe multiple handicaps; includes reports from conference on special ed./voc. ed.; discusses project to develop competencies for special voc. needs teachers.

Chouinard, Edward L. "Cooperative Agreements between Special Education and Vocational Rehabilitation." In Cooperative Agreements between Special Education and Rehabilitation Services in the West, edited by G. Hensley and D. Buck, pp. 1-7. Boulder, Colo.: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1968.

Describes Region IX's jointly funded programs between VR and many other agencies such as special education, mental health, corrections, mental retardation, and alchoholism. Agreements are based on national level agreement between Commissioner of Education and Commissioner of VR. Discusses "third-part" agreements.

The Comtroller General of the United States: Report to the Congress: Training Educators for the Handicapped: A Need To Redirect Federal Programs, Washington, D.C., Sep. 1976, (HRD-76-77).

The Office reviewed the capacity of special education teacher-training nationwide, the public school demand for special education teachers, the use of special educators within school districts; the relationship between current utilization of classroom teachers, paraprofessions and vocational educators; the process for developing new methods of training teachers of the handicapped. Chapter three deals with vocational education. Concudes that handicapped receive little in the way of vocational education and that vocational educators need training to teach the handicapped. Recommends a major drive to train vocational educators with skills and abilities needed to effectively deal with the handicapped.

Cooper, Bruce S.: Occupational Help for the Severely Disabled A Public School Model, REHABILITATION LITERATURE, Vol. 38, No. 3, March 1977.

Describes Project H.E.L.P. in Atlantic County, N.J. on occupational training program for severely handicapped which was able to train and help a number of young adults ages 15-35. Offers recommendations and policies.

Cull, J. & Hardy, R. (Eds.), Adjustment to work. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1973.

A collection of readings contributed by a number of authors from the field of work assessment. Chapter topics include: A description of the VEWAA Association, the future of vocational evaluation and work adjustment, theory or work adjustment, description of the Materials Development Center, contribution of group work to work adjustment, contribution of psychological evaluation to work adjustment, work adjustment and the Dictionary of Occupational Titles, work adjustment and the mentally ill, work adjustment and the disadvantaged, and vocational potential and work adjustment of the mentally retarded. Also includes examples of vocational evaluation unit forms, social habilitation unit forms, industrial therapy unit forms, and rehabilitation counseling unit forms.

Cull, J. & Hardy, R. (Eds.), Vocational evaluation for rehabilitation serivces. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1973.

A collection of readings contributed by a number of authors from the field of vocational education. Chapter topics include an overview of work evaluation, role of evaluation in the rehabilitation process, counseling impact of evaluation, a description of the VEWAA Association, evaluating the evaluator, a description of the Materials Development Center, the work sample approach to evaluation, the MODAPTS approach to evaluation, the work evaluation report, utilization of the Dictionary of Occupational Titles, prevocational education, scientific observation in work evaluation, psychological testing in work evaluation, vocational evaluation of the culturally disadvantaged, and the rehabilitation facilities role in evaluating the welfare client.

Dahl, Peter R. and Lipe, Dewer. Overcoming Barriers to Mainstreaming: A Problem-Solving Approach, Final Report. American Institutes for Research in the Behavioral Sciences, Jul 1978, 93 p. Palo Alto, CA.

The overall objective of this project was to produce a guidebook to help vocational educators gain skills in working with handicapped students in regular classrooms. The first step in the project was to assess barriers and identify ways to overcome them. Barriers were classified into the following categories: attitudinal, architectural, work environment, placement, and barriers to curriculum modification. Difficulties within categories were identified by a literature review, an advisory panel, vocational and special educators, and others concerned with handicapped training and placement. The second step with of the project was to prepare a guidebook acceptable to the vocational education community. The guidebook which identified and described practical ways to overcome barriers was reviewed and critiqued by an advisory panel and special and vocational educators not previously involved in the project. The guidebook was revised accordingly. Step 3 involved the dissemination of the guidebook through a commercial publishing company. (Appendixes include project abstract, meeting topics, synopsis of current information, forms to list problem areas and resources, sample completed survey form, telephone guide and recording form, prospectus and list of publishers, flyer describing the guidebook, list of interested publishers, and publication contact.) (Author/CCS)

Davidson, Jon Alan, "A model for Vocational Programming for Handicapped Students Under the Michigan Mandatory Special Education Law for the Downriver Catchment Area of Wayne Co. Intermediate School District", Wayne State University, 1976, 82 pp., Wayne, MI.

Questionnaire responses of local district superintendenants, high school principals, special e. and voc. directors, parents of handicapped children; indicates vocational centers are desirable.

Davis, Debra; Guzman, Juan; Jones, Joseph: Federal Assistance Guide For Vocational and Career Education For The Handicapped; Bureau of Education For the Handicapped/OE/U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C., 1979, 38 p.

Explains extent of federal assistance available to support vocational and career education of activities involving handicapped persons. Contains descriptive abstracts of 28 programs.

Davis, Sharon and Ward, Michael, Vocational Education of Handicapped Students: A Guide for Policy Development, Council for Exceptional Children, 1978, 95 p. Reston, Virginia.

Designed to assist state and local educational agencies and intermediate educational units in developing administrative policies for the vocational education of handicapped students, the manual addresses present policy areas and administrative concerns. Guidelines are presented for policy development in the following nine areas (examples of subtopics in parentheses): planning and administration (cooperation with vocational rehabilitation and other agencies); identification of students (referrals); vocational assessment (vocational counseling and observation of work behavior); individualized education programs; program placement (least restrictive environment and periodic review); service delivery (coordination of services and vocational education modifications); facilities and equipment (accessibility of new construction and adaptive services); personnel (student/staff ratio and inservice training); and fiscal management.

Dunn, D., Comparison of the JEVS, Singer/Graflec, and TOWER work evaluation systems. Menomonie, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin-Stout, Department of Rehabilitation and Manpower Services, Materials Development Center, 1971.

Compares the three work evaluation systems now available on the market in the areas of development, organization, process, administration, scoring and norms, observation, reporting, utility, training in use of, and current status.

Drain, T., Hand in Hand: Parents, Educators Planning Special Education for for the Child., U.S. Dept. of Health, Ed., and Welfare, 1979.

A quick reference on the rights and responsibilities of parents and educators as applied to the education of exceptional children. Describes steps for educational planning and the development of the IEP.

Educational Facilities Laboratories and the National Endowment for the Arts: Arts and the Handicapped; An Issue of Access; EFL, 850 Third Ave., New York 10022, Nov. 1975.

Author makes a case for including handicapped in art training, and assuring access of handicapped to museums including programming as well as the physical plant. Provides descriptions of successful facilities now operating and new interagency service delivery systems.

Fenn, Carl E., Task Analysis: A Tool for Teaching Job Skills to the Mildly Handicapped, Journal For Special Educators of Mentally Retarded, v.13, N.3, pp. 154-161, spring 1977.

Outlined are elements of task analysis for designing a vocational training program for mildly retarded students. Among task analysis factors described are name of the job, personal characteristics needed, and tasks to be taught by the employer. (CL)

Foster, June and others: Guidance, Counseling, and Support Services for High School Students With Physical Disabilities; Technical Education Research Centers; Cambridge, Mass., 1977, 457 pp.

An excellent treatment of issues relating to counseling and preparing physically handicapped for employment. Contains discussions on coordinating the delivery of services, personal adjustment, educational planning, career development and guidance, vocational assessment, psychometric testing, job placement, parent involvement. Contains a comprehensive compilation of resources.

Fraser, Robert T.: Rehabilitation Job Placement Research: A Trend Perspective; REHABILITATION LITERATURE; Vol. 39, No. 9, September 1978.

Author presents job placement research, comments on various aspects of these efforts, and offers some recommendations related to future efforts. Disscusses new placement techniques and clarification of job placement or job search process as it now occurs.

Gallagher, James J., Cooperation for Services. Journal of Rehabilitation 35 (1969): 29-30.

Cites legislative authorizations and cooperative activities of the Federal Bureau of Education for the Handicapped with rehabilitation on behalf of the disabled.

Gardner, David C. and Warren, Sue Allen, Careers and Disabilities: A Career Education Approach, Greylock Publishers, 1978, 176 pp., Stamford, CT.

An interdisciplinary text in the fields of special education and career education, the book presents recommendations for narrowing the gap between what is being taught handicapped persons and what they need to know to make an appropriate life adjustment. Chapter 1 introduces the major concepts of the career education movement and explores its implications for programing for handicapped persons. An overview of disabilities is provided in Chapter 2 (injuries, impairments, differences, handicaps).

Chapter 3 discusses the barriers to employment of such handicapped persons as the visually and aurally disabled, learning disabled, mentally and pysically handicapped, emotionally and behaviorally disturbed, and the epileptic. Chapter 4 focuses on such problems and techniques of vocational assessment as measures of intellectual functioning, adaptive behavior measures adademic achievement, interest tests, and personality measures. In Chapter 5, principles and data from psychological and learning theory research studies are selected to illustrate the potential that emerging educational technology offers for the vocational training of the handicapped. Chapter 6 proposes a process for identifying critical area(s) for instructional intervention in career education and for developing instructional programs for these areas (sample lesson plans are provided). Chapter 7 focuses on some examples of how learning principles have been applied successfully in the world of work. The eighth chapter outlines the career education curriculum development and infusion process, emphasizing special consideration for disabled populations and uses examples from recent studies and current programs. The final chapter discusses changes in American vocational education.

Gellman, W., The future development of vocational adjustment programs and workshops. Rehabilitation Literature. 1971, 32(4), 108-113.

Review of the history of work evaluation and work adjustment, the history of the workshop movement, and the three major themes of work as an introduction to the direction of the future of evaluation and work adjustment services. The future of workshops is presented in three areas: theoretical and technical innovations and the target population to which these innovations will be applied.

Gillet, Pamela, Career Ed. for Children With Learning Disabilities, Academic Therapy Publications, 1978, 196 pp., San Rafael, CA.

Intended for teachers, administrators, and parents, the manual covers elements of a career education program for learning disabled (LD) students at the elementary, junior high, and high school levels. The first section traces stages of career development, with emphasis on developing the individualized education program for special education. The continuum of services in career education is noted to range from mainstreamed settings without support services to self contained programs. Separate chapters on career education for elementary, junior high, and high school LD students include a discussion on concepts and activities. Considered are career education evaluation measures and tests of attitude, interests, and academic ability. A section on the work study phase provides suggestions to help the LD adolescent gain job success and discusses community agencies which may be of help. A materials section lists aids, kits, programs, games, audiovisual materials, and charts for such subject areas as family living, language arts, mathematics, science, social studies, and vocations. Addresses of approximately 150 publishers are also included.

Gortner, R., IE's help handicapped workers raise productivity. Industrial Engineering, 1973, 5(4), 10-15.

A discussion of the use of a particular pre-determined time standard system, MODAPTS (Modular Arrangement of Predetermined Time Standards) as a means for setting realistic production standards for the handicapped in a sheltered workshop, and developing efficient work place layouts and methods.

Gourley, Theodore Joseph, Jr., Factors Influencing New Jersey County Voc. Tech. School Districts to Establish Programs for Handicapped Students: A Study of Educational Change Agents, Temple University (Xerox University, Microfilms catalogue #76-22.042), 1976, 106 p., Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Results of the analysis of 20 school districts indicated: significant differences (such as the provision of special education teachers) were found between the program characteristics for schools with planned programs and schools without planned programs for the handicapped; three change agents (the superintendent, the president of the board of education, and program funds) were found to be significant factors in establishing a vocational educational program for the handicapped; and the superintendent and program fund were factors which influenced the development of a program's characteristics.

Gollay, Elinor and Bennett, Alwina: The College Guide For Students With Disabilities; Abt Publications, 55 Wheeler St., Cambridge, Mass., 02138; Westview Press, 1898 Flatiron Court, Boulder, Col., 80301, 1976, 545 p.

A detailed directory of higher education services, programs and facilities accessible to handicapped students in the United States. Explains legal rights in higher education, handbooks and directories for choosing a college or graduate school, admissions testing programs, sources of financial aid, sources of learning aids and materials, information and referral agencies, non-traditional approaches to obraining a higher education (learning at a distance, etc.), federal agencies, state agencies, publications, descriptions of colleges and college accessibility tables.

Greenblum, Joseph: Effect of Vocational Rehabilitation on Employment and Earnings of the Disabled: State Variations; Social Security Bulletin; Vol. 40, p. 3-16), Dec. 1977.

The author analyzes linked records of the Social Security Administration and the Rehabilitation Services Administration showing wide variation by State in 1972 employment and earnings compared with other disabled persons whose cases were closed in 1971. Author shows the patterns which emerge from employment percentage differences between rehabilitated and non-rehabilitated clients.

Greenblum, Joseph: Effect of Rehabilitation on Employment and Earnings of the Disabled: Sociodemographic Factors; SOCIAL SECURITY BULLETIN, August 1979, Vol. 42, No. 8.

The report analyzes the importance of sociodemographic factors in the effect of rehabilitation services on the employment and earnings of disabled persons after their cases were closed by State vocational agencies in fiscal year 1971. It identifies sociodemographic factors that facilitate or hamper the effects of rehabilitation as measured primarily by employment differences between clients who completed and failed to complete a program of rehabilitation services.

Guzman, Juan; Wahrman, Mona; Holloran, Bill: *Interagency Cooperation: A Process Model for Establishing Cooperation Services Agreements to Serve Secondary School Students*; Mideast Regional Resource Center, George Washington University, Washington, D.C., February 1979.

Contains material presented at the National Workshop for the Development of Comprehensive Secondary Programming and Rehabilitation Services for the Handicapped on cooperative planning for the handicapped.

Halpern, Andrew S., *Principles and Practices of Measurement in Career Education for the Handicapped*, April 1977, 32 pp.

Discussed is testing in the field of career education for the handicapped with emphasis on four major topics: applied performance testing, criterion validity, studies, product versus process measurement, and criterion versus norm referenced measurement. The author reviews some political considerations relevant to this area of testing.

Hardy, Richard E., and Cull, John G., *Vocational Evaluation for Rehabilitation Services*, (American Lecture Series in Social and Rehabilitation Psychology), Charles C. Thomas, Publisher.

This book contains studies on work evaluation, adjustment, counseling, and testing.

Hensley, Gene, and Buck, Dorothy: *Cooperative Agreements Between Special Education and Rehabilitation Services in the West*; Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, Boulder, Colorado, June 1968.

Contains selected papers from a conference on cooperative agreements held in Las Vagas, Nevada, February 1968. One of the early efforts to stimulate cooperation between special education and vocational rehabilitation in preparing the handicapped for employment.

Hoffman, P., *An Overview of Work Evaluation. Journal of Rehabilitation*, 1970, 36(1), 16-18. Also appears as Work Evaluation: An Overview. In W. Pruitt, and R. Pacinelli (Eds.), *Work Evaluation in Rehabilitation*. Washington, D.C.: Association of Rehabilitation Centers, 1969, pp. 111-118.

Definitions of prevocational evaluation, vocational evaluation, work evaluation, and work adjustment. Discusses historical background and development of work evaluation from World War I to present, including some of the early facilities and leaders in the field. Discusses present trends and future of work evaluation and lists some of the federal agencies involved in the work evaluation field.

Holden, Edward; Ferriman, James; Green, Alfred: Rehabilitation: The Road; JOURNAL OF INSURANCE, May/June 1975.

A look at what is happening today in rehabilitation, and at the insurance industry's involvement.

Halloran, William, et.al., Vocational Education for the Handicapped: Resource Guide to Federal Regulations, Texas A and M Research Foundation, College Station; Texas Education Agency, Austin; and Texas Regional Resource Center, Austin, Apr. 1978, 267 p.

The report analyzes regulations and considers implications for special and vocational educators of Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, and the Vocational Education Act of 1963, amended in 1976. Initial sections focus on the content of the laws, while a separate chapter compares the regulations and considers implications for such aspects as definitions, educational placement, individualized education programs, personnel development, funding, and vocational guidance and counseling. Nearly one-half of the document is composed of appended Federal Regulations.

Hopkins, Mary A., and Brook, Robert J., TMR Programs: A Vocational Life Function Performance Based Criterion Reference Curriculum, University of Wisconsin at Stout, Menomonie, Wisconsin, 54751 Menomonie Public Schools and Wisconsin University, Stout, November 1977, 300 p.

Described in the discussion draft is a performance based criterion referenced curriculum for teaching vocational skills to trainable mentally retarded (TMR) students which was developed jointly by the University of Wisconsin at Stout and the Menomonie Public School Administration. Explained in the introduction are three evaluation inventories in the areas of adjustment, behavior and skills. A section on needs analysis lists questions on the student population, parental reaction, teaching staff and operational plan, facilities and materials, community resources, and the evaluation procedure. The following section, on facilities and materials, includes ratings of current program items and a suggested procedure for purchase proposal. Parental contacts, meetings, tours, presentations, and the advisory committee are discussed in the section on public relations. Reported in the section on community occupational survey, the TMR program introductory letter and survey, personal contact with employers, and job analysis. Considered in the section on evaluation are the evaluation format, the the evaluation process, work evaluation, the design of "work skills" evaluation forms, sample work evaluation, work adjustment, and the complete evaluation form (for adjustment, behavior, and skills). The final section of the TMR curriculum in vocational education examines instruction goals, scheduling for individualized instruction, instruction content, and a sample curriculum. Appended are brief descriptions of various work batteries and an evaluation of their suitability for use with TRM students.

Hughes, James H. and Rice, Eric: Needs Assessment Procedure: Mainstreaming Handicapped; Systems Sciences, Inc., Chapel Hill, N.C. May 1978, 18 p.

Manual for local vocational education administrators planning a mainstreaming approach for handicapped students in vocational education. Discusses a program planning and evaluation model developed following a review of the literature and interviews with school administrators.

Huh, Marc E.: Vocational Education for the Handicapped: A Review," INFORMATION SERIES #19; Ohio State U.-Columbus, ERIC Clearinghouse on Career Education, Columbus, Ohio, 1977, 67 p.

A review and synthesis of programming and techniques useful in providing vocational education to handicapped secondary and postsecondary school students is presented in this information analysis paper. Information and insights are given so that vocational administrators and supervisors can assess their efforts to provide equal opportunities for the handicapped to participate fully in all facets of vocational education including youth organizations, cooperative vocational education, vocational guidance services, and consumer education. Also, practical suggestions are included for effectively accommodating handicapped students through both regular and special instructional arrangements. Specific topics discussed include the following: rationale for the participation of the handicapped in vocational education, barriers to participation, impact of legislation, identifying the handicapped, developing appropriate program alternatives for serving the handicapped, provocational education, role of vocational education in comprehensive secondary programming for the academically handicapped, need for interagency cooperation, curriculum and instructional materials to assist in vocational training, personnel preparation, evaluation of students and programs, and professional organizations. The conclusion is made that emphasis of the future must be one of equal access and maximum accommodation. The appendix contains descriptions of information systems on the Handicapped.

Institute for the Crippled and Disabled: TOWER: Testing, orientation and work evaluation in rehabilitation; New York, 1959.

Book review of TOWER. Describes the TOWER Work Sample Battery and some of the advantages and disadvantages of the system.

Jaques, Marceline E.: The School and the Community: Coordinated Rehabilitation Services, REHABILITATION COUNSELING: SCOPE AND SERVICES, pp. 37-51, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1970.

This chapter reviews models of collaboration between rehabilitation and education. Patterns of collaboration involve four models of services for the rehabilitation counselor.

Jones, Michael & Stevens, Marsha: People. . .Just Like You; President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Washington, D.C., undated.

Activities and workshop ideas for teaching nondisabled students' misconceptions concerning the handicapped and for initiating attitudinal change among school aged children are presented.

Katz, David & Flugman, Bert: College and Industry: Partners in the Handicapped Employment Role (CIPER II); City U of N.Y., Center for Advanced Study in Education, N.Y.C., N.Y., August 1977, 124 p.

Discusses methods and techniques used in developing a project to meet occupational and employment needs of handicapped community college students.

Kessick, K.: The Wells Concrete Directions Test: Its applicability to vocational evaluation. VOATIONAL EVALUATION AND WORK ADJUSTMENT BULLETIN, Vol. 6, #4, pp. 15-18, 1973.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the appropriateness of the Wells Concrete Directions Test when used with individuals of average intelligence by comparing their overall performance on the instrument with that of the original normative sample. Includes description of a research project in which the test was administered to normal adults and presents need for a modified test to measure ability to follow directions, especially with other than mentally retarded populations.

Klinkhamer, George E.: "Mutuality of Planning for Joint Programs," in a Joint Partnership--Education and Rehabilitation, a report of a planning conference of vocational education and vocational rehabilitation executives at Afton Mountain, Va., Feb. 23-25, 1972, sponsored by CSAVR and the National Assn. of State Directors of Vocational Education, published in REHABILITATION INTERAGENCY FOCUS 5, Vol. 2, #6, May 1972.

Stresses the need for joint planning to meet the needs of the handicapped at federal, state, and local levels. Participants should include special education, vocational education, and vocational rehabilitation, as well as other public and private agencies serving the handicapped.

Kelstee, Oliver P.: Implications of Research Findings on Vocational and Career Education for the Mentally Handicapped; Vocational Education, Columbus, Ohio, Dec. 1977, 17 p.

Professionals in the education field have recognized the special problems of the mentally retarded and since the early part of the 1950s have attempted to find out just how to intervene between the limitations of the retarded and the demands in the world of competitive work. Since some retarded individuals become competent employees while others do not, studies have examined differences between these persons. Studies have also examined problems which caused retarded individuals trouble on their jobs--poor personal and social skills, poor work habits, and fault of employers, coordinators, or parents. Professionals have attempted to take into account these conditions. For example, attempts are being made to broaden the range of training opportunities through cooperative efforts with other disciplines--notably vocational rehabilitation and vocational education. This occurred in the 1960s at about the same time change began to make itself felt in many social institutions influenced by humanism, resulting in the concept called mainstreaming--the integration of handicapped into regular classrooms. But is integration the best policy? Studies show that there appears to be a real danger that handicapped students will become lost in regular classes, or they will not receive the special support they need from instructors and students of regular classes. Research suggests what educators should be doing with the mildly retarded: (1) Label the students, but not refer to them as "mildly retarded"; (2) give them a highly structured program which recognizes their delayed readiness and their slower than average academic progress; (3) present material in a competency-based, individualized format, and (4) plan enrichment experiences.

Lattin, Diane: Prospects for Change: PERFORMANCE, Vol. 26, May 1976.

Author presents alternatives to sheltered workshops and some recommendations for change relating to rehabilitation and employment of handicapped people.

Lamborn, Emily M. The State-Federal Partnerhsip; JOURNAL OF REHABILITATION, #36, pp. 10-15, 1970, 6 p.

Presents a concise history of the joint state-federal vocational rehabilitation programs from 1920 to 1970. Emphasizes not only the state-federal partnership, but also the history of cooperative arrangements with other agencies and the expansion of those relationships in more recent legislative mandates.

Lemonds, Cherry & Moss, Pam: Choosing a Job. . .Information About Deaf People and Their Jobs; Mt. Florio (Ohio State U.) National Center on Educational Media and Materials for the Handicapped, Columbus, Ohio, 1974, 70 p.

The authors have attempted to introduce deaf high school students to "new and unique jobs that deaf people are entering," in the hope that they will be motivated to "branch out" from traditional deaf job stereotypes.

Levitan, Sar A. and Taggart, Robert: Jobs for the Disabled; (Policy Studies in Employment and Welfare, No. 28) John Hopkins U. Press, Baltimore, Md. 1977, 127 p.

An indepth study of manpower and rehabilitation data as related to employment of the disabled. Considers four areas: disablement and employment possibilities, vocational rehabilitation systems, return on the vocational rehabilitational investment, and the adequacy of present rehabilitation services.

McFarland, C. rev. of Houston, W.: The separation of rehabilitation from production costs in the vocational rehabilitation workshop. (Occupational Papers in Rehabilitative Administration, Vol. 3, pp. 16-20), 1973.

A review of a research study to develop a means of separating a vocational rehabilitation workshop's joint costs of production and rehabilitation. Studied the question of whether separated costs are relevant information for decision making in the areas of performance judgment, resource allocations, pricing contracts and setting of rehabilitation fees.

Mahena, P., Jr.,: Active or reactive: Two practical approaches to work adjustment. LOUISIANA VOCATIONAL EVALUATION AND WORK ADJUSTMENT ASSOCIATION NEWS, Vol. 3, #2, pp. 19-21, 1972.

Presents two approaches to work adjustment: (1) active - where the work adjustment program is planned prior to a client's entry based upon background information, and (2) reactive - in which the work adjustment process and planning depends on the client's actions while undergoing work adjustment treatment.

Mallik, Kalisanker & Yuspeh, Sheldon: Bio-Engineering Service to the Developmentally Disabled Adolescent; Job Development Laboratory, George Washington U. Medical Center, Washington, D.C., 1075, 75 p.

Environmental modifications and supportive devices are discussed as methods of improving the educational and vocational possibilities of handicapped.

Mallik, Kalisanker and Yuspeh, Sheldon: Comprehensive Vocational Rehabilitation for Severely Disabled Persons; Job Development Laborarory, George Washington U. Medical Center, Washington, D.C., undated.

Major topic areas of a conference including: medical considerations, evaluation and vocational preparation, barriers to employment, rehabilitation engineering, job development and the placement process, and de-institutionalization/community alternative. Papers and presentation accounts are given in full.

Mallik, K. & Yuspeh, S.: Job Development and Enhanced Productivity for Severely Disabled Persons (Federal Report); Job Development Laboratory, George Washington U. Medical Center, Washington, D.C., 1979, 146 p.

Using low cost bioengineering technology, equips severely handicapped clients to become adapted to jobs usually denied them. Describes processes of studying the job environment, making adaptations of the work environment, of necessary work tools and work materials, and providing clients with orthotic devices which enhance the functional capacity of the client in overcoming barriers to employment and upward mobility.

Mallik, Kalisanker & Sprinkle, Judy: System Approach in Vocational Rehabilitation Agencies with a New Look; REHABILITATION LITERATURE, Vol. 38, #5, May 1977.

An approach to help counselors in job placement for severely handicapped. Suggests alternatives for saving counselors' time, organizing a job finding club among clients for job ready clients, orientation sessions for employers, circulating a list of job ready clients to employers.

Mangum, Garth & Glen, Lowell: Vocational Rehabilitation and Federal Manpower Policy; jointly published by the Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, U. of Mich., Ann Arbor and the National Manpower Policy Task Force, Ann Arbor, Michigan and Washington, D.C., 1967.

Marshall, James E.: "Special Education and Cooperative Agreement," In Cooperative Agreements between Special Education and Rehabilitation Services in the West, edited by G. Hensley and D. Buck, pp. 9-17, Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, Boulder, Colo., 1968.

Discusses the long recognized need for cooperating between special education and vocational rehabilitation. Notes the oppostion in general circles; vocational rehabilitation tended to overshadow special education at the national level. Cites summation of cooperative agreements at state level between vocation rehabilitation and special education.

Materials and Information Center: Toward a system approach to evaluation and adjustment services; Alabama Rehabilitation Media Service, Auburn U., Auburn, Ala., 1971

A booklet distributed to supplement a panel presentation on a systems approach to evaluation and adjustment services (NRS National Conference, Chicago, 1971). Discusses and includes flow charts on the evaluation and adjustment processes.

Mithaug, Dennis E., et al.: The Relationship Between Training Activities and Job Placement in Vocational Education of the Severely and Profoundly Handicapped; AAESPH Review, Vol. 2, #2, pp. 25-45, June 1977, 21 p.

Discusses the problem of relating vocational training activities to the rehabilitation goal of job placement. Includes questionnaire designed to assess behavior and skill requirments of rehabilitation centers of five northwestern states.

Munn, C.: A human factors checklist for vocational evaluators; U. of Wisconsin-Stout, Department of Rehabilitation and Manpower Services, Research and Training Center, Menomonie, Wis., 1972.

Presents a 20 item checklist to be used by vocational evaluators in assessing the design of work samples and work stations in vocational evaluation. The items were developed from factors identified by methods engineers as being important to optimal levels of productivity. Use of the checklist as a procedure for identifying design or environmental impediments to optimal performance is illustrated, (Social and Rehabilitation Service Grant RT-22).

Nadolsky, Julian M.: Guidelines for the Classification and Utilization of Vocational Evaluation Personnel: REHABILITATION LITERATURE, Vol. 35, #46, June 1974.

Author presents a competency based approach for staffing patterns in large and small agencies for vocational evaluation, including vocational evaluators, vocational evaluation technicians, vocational evaluation aides.

Nadolsky, J.: Vocational evaluation theory in perspective: REHABILITATION LITERATURE, Vol. 32, #8, pp. 226-231, 1971.

Presents three basic points of view that provide the current theoretical basis for vocational evaluation: individual trait orientation, environmental setting orientation, and individual-environmental relationship orientation. Seven basic assumptions are provided for each of the three points of view and their advantages and limitations noted.

National Association of State Boards of Education: Vocational Education of Handicapped Youth: State of the Art, a NASBE Report to the Dept. of H.E.W., 1979, 57 p.

This is a four state study (Arizona, Maine, South Dakota, and Montana on the state of the art in vocational education of handicapped youth. It provided a needs assessment analysis and recommendations targeted to policy issues for consideration by State Boards of Education.

National Center for Law and the Handicapped: AMICUS - a bi-monthly magazine, vols. 1-4, 1976-1979.

Each issue gives in-depth presentations of various legal aspects relating to the legislation and civil rights for the handicapped.

Nazzaro, Jean: Preparing for the IEP Meeting: A Workship for Parents; Council for Exceptional Children, Reston, Va., April 1979, 64p.

A two-hour training package provides opportunities for parents, teachers, and administrators to actively participate in problem-solving situations related to a student's educational program.

Neff, W.: Problems of work evaluation; PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, Vol. 44, #7, pp. 682-688, 1966. Also appears in: R. Sankovsky, G. Arthur, & J. Mann (Comps.), Vocational evaluation and work adjustment: A book of readings, Auburn U., Alabama Rehabilitation Media Service, Auburn, Ala., 1969.

A review of the advantages and disadvantages of four approaches to work evaluation: (1) the mental testing approach (psychometrics); (2) job analysis approach, (3) work sample approach, (4) situational assessment.

Neubauer, G.W.: Vocational Education and Issues, Problems, Resources, and Services Needed, and Joint Agency Planning and Programming for the Disabled and Mentally and/or Physically Handicapped Persons, VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

Discusses functional activities in the nine general rehabilitation programs grouped on the basis of client referral and client flow-pattern and objectives which were developed for each program, sub-program, and functional activity. Concludes that the

Newman, E.: Vocational Evaluation and work adjustment, a future thrust of the rehabilitation movement; REHABILITATION RECORD, Vol. 12, #1, pp. 13-15, 1971.

Discusses the Vocational Evaluation and Work Adjustment Amendment (Section 15) to the Vocational Rehabilitation Act which authorizes the following for disadvantaged individuals: (a) preliminary diagnostic study of work evaluation; (b) diagnostic study of medical, psychological, vocational, social, and environmental areas; (c) services to appraise work attitudes and behavioral patterns; (d) other services to determine nature of handicap; and (e) outreach and referral. Aspects of funding and interagency cooperation are discussed with relation to both pilot programs and future work evaluation. Emphasis is placed on the need for closer cooperation of individuals and agencies in evaluation and adjustment.

Obermann, C. Esco: Coordinating Services for Handicapped Children; Final report, project no. RD-1181, National Rehabilitation Research and Scholarship Fund, Washington, D.C. 1964. Also, Kurren, Oscar: "Interagency Joint Planning and Collaboration--Fact and Fiction," EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN #29, pp. 143-148, Nov. 1962.

Discusses findings of a series of interagency workshops held in four U.S. cities in 1962, conducted by National Institute on Services for Handicapped Children and Youth, and sponsored by NRA, Council for Exceptional Children, and National Society for Crippled Children and Adults. Workshops focused on: identification of cooperative plans and agreements in effect, review of problems in implementation, and suggested new approaches for more effective interagency relationships.

Olympus Research Corporation: An Assessment of Vocational Education Programs the Handicapped Under Part B of the 1968 Amendments to the Vocational Education Act; Final Report. Salt Lake City, Utah and San Francisco, Cal., Oct. 30, 1974.

An indepth study of the vocational education program at the state level, project level and interviews with participants and parents. Assessment covered 25 states, administration, financial profile of the states, issues and policies, the instructional program, selection and referral, educational plans, guidance and counseling, program costs and outcomes, participant and parent characteristics, job experience, and an employer sample. Contains summary of findings and recommendations.

O'Toole, Richard & Mather, Robert J.: Work Experience: Transition from School to Employment for Mentally Retarded Youth; Vocational Guidance and Rehabilitation Services, 2239 E. 55th St., Cleveland, Ohio, 44103.

Report is based on a follow-up study of job placement of students who were in a program beginnning in 1965. Author describes a project which demonstrated an interagency approach to the problems which retarded students experience in making effective transition from school to employment. The program is the result of coordinated efforts of the Cleveland Public School System, the Ohio Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation and Vocational Guidance and Rehabilitation Service. The program has now been incorporated into the regular curriculum of the Cleveland Public School.

Owens, D.: Enhancing Job Placement of Epileptic Rehabilitation Clients: A Research Demonstration Project; Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation, Pa., 1976, 199 p.

Two separate studies, one comparing three models of job placement for epileptic clients and the other investigating the issue of disclosure of epilepsy in job interviews were conducted.

Overs, R. & Trotter, A. (Eds.): The theory of job sample Tasks; Milwaukee Media for Rehabilitation Research Reports, No. 2, Curative Workshop of Milwaukee, Milwaukee, 1968.

A basic orientation to the theory, develoment and current status of work samples. Discusses the following: the difference between actual job sample tasks and simulated job sample tasks, job tasks construction, assessment with paper and pencil tests, norming job samples, reliability of job samples, validity of job samples.

Parker, Scott L. et al.: Improving Occupational Programs for the Handicapped; Management Analysis Center, Inc., 1225 Conn. Ave., NW, Wash. D.C. 20036, U.S. Dept. of H.E.W., Office of Education, undated.

Authors have presented a comprehensive manual for setting up occupational training programs for handicapped youth. Includes planning and designing a program focus on the student, meeting the student's needs, preparation for specific skill training, vocational training related academic training, supportive and social services, transition to the work world, job placement and follow up and cooperation. Manual was based on an indepth study of exemplary programs around the country chosen for site visits to thirty programs chosen from 350 returned questionnaires from 450 programs nominated as worthy of special study.

Perry, Harold W.: Coordinated Program of Vocational Rehabilitation and Special Education Services for the Mentally Retarded; SRS project grant no. RD-1682, Board of Education, Memphis City Schools, Memphis, Tenn., 1968. Taken from SRS Abstracts, DHEW, SRS-RIS.

Attempts to study and demonstrate special occupational evaluation and training activities which could lead to realistic vocational goals for high school age educable mentally handicapped youth. Among the objectives of the project were to effect a comprehensive and coordinated program between special education and rehabilitation and to effect subsequential and coordinated prevocational curriculum. Project led to extensive cooperative programming between special education and vocational rehabilitation.

Phelps, Lewis Allen: Competency-Based Inservice Education for Secondary School Personnel Serving Special Needs Students in Vocational Education: A Formative Field Test Evaluation, U. of Illinois-Urbana, University Microfilms International, 1976, 371 p.

Among modification suggestions resulting from a field test designed to evaluate a series of competency based inservice teacher education modules for vocational educators and special educators were the addition of case

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studies depicting special needs students, relocation of the self evaluation checklists in the module format, and further specification of the relationships between the instructional development processes in different modules. Recommendations included development and field testing of component actions of a multiple unit instructional product and review of the products by technical and subject matter experts.

Phelps, Lewis Allen & Batchelor, Laurie J.:

Individualized Education Programs (IEP's): A Handbook for Vocational Educators; National Center for Research in Vocational Education, Ohio State U., 1979.

A guide book for planning, developing and implementing the IEP which included vocational education.

Phelps, Lewis Allen: Leadership Training Institute on Vocational Education for Handicapped Individuals,, Pennsylvania State U., a report by Smith, Judy: A Consumer Guide to Personnel Preparation Progress, Vol. V. Thirty Projects/ A Conspectus; Alburquerque, N.M., 1979.

A description of a one year project conducted by Penn. State Div. of Occupational and Vocational Studies. Provides short term inservice training to leadership personnel in vocational education, vocational rehabilitation, and special education representing state and local administrators, professional and advocacy groups, state advisory councils, institution of higher education, business industry, & labor, including about 400 persons.

Phelps, Lewis Allen: Providing Full Vocational Education Opportunity for Special Populations; UCLA EDUCATOR, Vol. 20, #2, pp. 13-18, Spr/Sum 1978.

Discusses vocational education opportunities for the handicapped; examines four sections of P.L. 94-142 (Education for All Handicapped Children Act) that have a direct effect on the delivery of vocational programming: full vocational education opportunity, individualized programs and plans, least restrictive environment, and nondiscriminatory evaluation; describes three related federal initiatives: the Vocational Amendments of 1976, Section 503 (affirmative action in employment practices) and 594 (prohibition of discrimination on the basis of handicap in any federally assisted program) of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. Stresses the importance of advocacy involvement in providing appropriate vocational education opportunites. Describes four major emerging research needs in the field of vocational programming for the handicapped.

Phelps, Lewis Allen: A Review and Analysis of Vocational Education Programming for Handicapped Individuals in the U.S. paper presented at the World Congress on Future Special Education (First, Stirling, Scotland, June 25-July 1, 1978), June 1978, 15 p.

The paper provides an overview of the current national state-of-the-art in vocational education programming for handicapped individuals. Past and present practices are reviewed. Emerging trends are noted, and future problems and challenges that need to be addressed are examined. (Author/SBH).

Phelps, Lewis Allen: Vocational Education for Special Needs Learners: Past, Present, and Future; School Psychology Digest, Vol. 7, #1, pp. 18-34, Winter 1977, 17 p.

The article presents the "state of the art" of vocational education programs for handicapped students. The author cites recent legislation such as P.L. 94-142 (Education for All Handicapped Children Act) and describes existing barriers that impede the now-required-by-law mainstreaming of handicapped students. The elements of exemplary programs are listed, including the setting of a full educational opportunity goal, complete staff cooperation and communication, identification and assessment, an individualized educational program, and provision of the least restrictive environment. The need for inservice and preservice teacher education is discussed. Challenges, issues and future directions are outlined.

Phelps, Lewis Allen, et. al.: Vocational Education for Special Needs Students: Competencies and Models for Personnel Preparation, Final Report; Illinois U.-Urbana, Bureau of Educational Research, Urbana, Ill., June 1976, 265 p.

The report describes a workshop designed for personnel preparation in vocational education for handicapped students. Workshop presentations and activities are covered in part I, while critical professional tasks are identified in part II; Part III presents personnel preparation models prepared by 10 university-state department teams attending the workshops.

Phelps, Lewis Allen & Clark, G.M.: Personnel Preparation for Vocational Programming of Special Needs Students; JOURNAL OF CAREER EDUCATION, Vol. 3, #3, pp. 35-51, Winter 1977, 17 p.

Outlines some general considerations and guidelines for educators developing preservice and inservice programs which address the vocational programming needs of handicapped students. Topics cover: need identification, program design, program content, and methods, practicum experiences, certification, evaluation and staff selection and development.

Phillips, Linda et al.: Barriers and Bridges: An Overview of Vocational Services Available for Handicapped Californians; California Advisory Council on Vocational Education, Sacramento, CA, 1976, 149 p.

Provides an overview of vocational services available to disabled Californians and reports on some of the problems of including the disabled in the mainstream of the educational delivery system. Chapter 1 presents some working definitions of terms, a profile of handicapped Californians, and a description of the system designed to meet thier career and vocational needs. In Chapter 2 barriers that exist in the system are considered in three categories: barriers within society (such as lack of knowledge, attitudinal barriers, and architectural barriers), barriers within the helping system (such as definitions/labeling, inadequate planning and personnel), and barriers within handicapped persons, their families, and other advoates (including physical/mental/emotional problems and behavioral barriers). Chapters 3 and 4 outline some of the major trends that are occurring both nationally and within California and some recommendations for change aimed at such groups as elected officials, the California State Board of Education, and advocates of the handicapped. Appendixes include: a list of Calif. Advisory Council on Vocational Education steering committee members; information on suggested resources for information services, educational activities, guidance related activities, preservice and inservice education, rehabiliaton technology, handicapped consumer run activities, leisure time activities, studies and assessments, and publication, and a list of organizations expressing interest in working with handicapped individuals.

Pitt, Roger, Comp. & Thomas, Edward, Comp.: A Review of Related Literature Concerning Components of Systems and Studies that Impact on Identification and Selection of EMR's and Slow Learners for Vocational Programs; Miss. Research and Curriculum Unit for Vocational and Technical Education, State College and Miss. State Dept. of Education, Jackson Div. of Vocational and Technical Education, Jackson, MS, May 1977, 94 p.

A resource document for vocational educators and special education personnel. Discusses the components of 11 major work samples for EMR's and includes annotated references related to vocational education methodologies and in general to education of mentally handicapped students and slow learners.

President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped: Getting Through College with a Disability; President's Committee, etc., Wash. D.C., undated.

A summary of services available to disabled students at 500 college campuses in the U.S. A listing of handbooks and organizations relevant to the handicapped student is also provided.

President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped: Pathways to Employment; President's Committee, etc., Wash. D.C., undated.

A listing of barriers to the handicapped in job preparation and placement with subsequent recommendations to alleviating those problems.

President's Committee on Mental Retardation: MR 78; Mental Retardation: The Leading Edge - Service Programs that Work; U.S. Dept of H.E.W., Wash. D.C.

Excellent sections on the family, work and self assertion.

Pruitt, W.: Basic assumptions underlying work sample theory; JOURNAL OF REHABILITATION, Vol. 35, #1, pp. 24-26, 1970.

Defines categories of work samples and cites research on work sampling. Gives brief definition of terms - work sample (including different kinds of work samples), vocational evaluation, work sample evaluation, work potential and work personality. Presents nine basic assumptions regarding work samples with a discussion of each assumption citing validating research for the assumptions.

Pruitt, W. & Pacinelli, R. (Eds.): Work evaluation in rehabilitation; Assn. of Rehabilitation Centers, Wash. D.C., 1969.

A compilation of several papers reflecting the current situation in work evaluation, prepared by participants in an institute held in Denver, August 1969. Articles and authors included are: Hoffman (Work Evaluation: An Overview), Roberts (Definitions, Objectives and Goals in Work Evaluation), Sankovsky (Patterns of Services in Vocational Evaluation), Sink (Evaluation - A Reason for Concern), Bregman (Organization and Administration of the Vocational Rehabilitation Center Work Evaluation Program), Lee (Structure and Administration of a Work Evaluation Program). Spergel (The Organization and Administration of a Comprehensive Work Evaluation Unite in a Multifunctioning Vocational Rehabilitation Program), Rosenberg (Organization and Administration of Work Evaluation), Church & Barnes (Funding for Work Evaluation Units and Purchase Work Evaluation Services). (Education Grant 418-T-69).

Reardon, Robert: A Self-Directed Career Planning Program for the Visually Disabled; Fla. State U., Counseling and Health and Rehabilitation, 215 Stone Bldg., Tallahasse, Fla., 32306.

A self-help oriented, multimedia-based career exploration program. Uses John Holland's Self Directed Search with a tactile score board and cassette tapes for each module, and also includes a taped occupational information library describing at least 600 jobs.

Rice, B. & Thornton, C.: Utilization of a prescriptive vocational evaluation to increase counselor effectiveness; REHABILITATION RESEARCH AND PRACTICE REVIEW, Vol. 4, # 1, pp. 59-63, 1972.

Presents a description and merits of a "prescription" vocational evaluation process which emphasizes specifically prescribed short and long term services, and setting of goals for the client (in addition to traditional observations).

Roessler, Richard & Mack, Greta: Strategies for Inter-Agency Linkages: A Literature Review; U. of Ark., Ark. Rehabilitation Research and Training Center, Fayetteville, Ark., 1975.

Presents a description and merits of a "prescriptive" vocational evaluation process which emphasizes specifically prescribed short and long term services, and setting of goals for the client (in addition to traditional observations).

Roessler, Richard & Mack, Greta: Strategies for Inter-Agency Linkages: A Literature Review; U. of Ark., Ark. Rehabilitation Research and Training Center, Fayetteville, Ark., 1975.

Emphasis on interagency linkages stems from the need to (a) minimize service duplication, (b) serve the severely disabled, and (c) meet the needs of families. Suggests that domain consensus can be increased by establishing a common goal for and by specifying the nature of linkages. Ideological consensus can be increased by providing evidence of the benefits of linkages and by identifying needed actions by each agency to implement coordination.

Rubin, Stanford & Roessler, Richard: Diagnostic and Planning Guidelines for the Vocational Rehabilitation Process; REHABILITATION LITERATURE, Vol. 40, #2, Feb. 1979.

Offers interesting viewpoints regarding vocational rehabilitation. Outlines a concrete sequential procedure for using evaluation data to generate appropriate vocational hypotheses and for subsequently involving the client in consideration of these hypotheses during the rehabilitation planning process.

Rusalem, Herbert & Malikin, David: Contemporary Vocational Rehabilitation, New York U. Press, New York, NY, 1976, 250 p.

This text addresses controversial topics and ideas currently surrounding the field of vocational rehabilitation. Contributing authors examine the changing role of federal-state government agencies, the emergence of career development theory, the rise of the consumer, new approaches to vocational evaluation, counseling the mentally retarded, assessment training, placement and changing client populations.

Sankovsky, R.: Toward a common understanding of vocational evaluation; JOURNAL OF REHABILITATION, Vol. 36, #1, pp. 10-12, 1970.

Discusses the lack of common meaning for vocational evaluation terminology and necessity for having common definitions. Lists some of the terms used interchangeably that cause communication breakdown. Describes essential structure and characteristics of a vocational evaluation model which includes establishing criteria and vocational goals, collecting information regarding vocational potential, analyzing information regarding vocational potential, decision making on vocational objectives and predicting outcome, and determining the effectiveness of the vocational evaluation process through follow-up.

Scolfo, Joseph L. & Henry, William C.: Guidelines for Establishing a Vocational Assessment System for the Special Needs Student, Rutgers U.-New Brunswick, Curriculum Lab., New Brunswick, N.J., April 1978.

This manual presents guidelines for vocational education administrators and evaluators on how vocational evaluation can be integrated into career education and how it lies in with the mandates of federal legislation concerning the handicapped. Beginning the manual a philosophy of vocational assessment is offered followed by a discussion of the relevancy of vocational assessment to a career development. Next the major methods of Vocational assessment and the criteria for selecting a vocational evaluation system are examined. A comparison for selecting five evaluation systems using educational variables is then presented in chart form from both the administrator's and evaluator's perspective. Following this information are sections on setting up, staffing and operating the vocational assessment unit. Also included is a section on writing the vocational evaluation report. The future of vocational assessment is analyzed in the final section. A bibliography and a glossary of terms conclude the manual.

Shay, Harold F.: A decade of Development; REHABILITATION RECORD 11, pp. 23-26 (1970).

Discusses the advantages for handicapped youth of cooperative programs of special education, vocational education, and vocational rehabilitation, using the Dallas (Texas) Vocational School program as an example.

Sherwood, David M. & Bitter, James A.: Contract Packages in Rehabilitation, University of No. Colorado, School of Special Education and Rehabilitation, Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute, Greeley, Colo. An article based on this report appears in the JOURNAL OF REHABILITATION, Vol. 38, pp. 31-33 (1972).

Smith, David W., et al.: The Community Resources Institute: A Process for Attitude Change. NOMOGRAPH SERIES #2, U. of Ariz., College of Education, Rehabilitation Center, 1971.

Describes an "institute" approach to developing community decision-making capabilities. Service providers and community leaders are brought together and small-group processes are used to identify and prioritize problems and to deal with the allocation of resources. The objective is attitude change on the part of participants rather than concrete behavioral outcomes.

State U. of New York-Albany: Vocational Education: A Manual of Program Accessiblity for the Physically Disabled Two-Year College Applicant; State U. of N.Y.-Albany, Coordinating Area #4, Albany, N.Y., 1977, 224 p.

This manual was designed as a resource guide for handicapped individuals interested in two-year occupational training at various institutions within the State U. of NY (SUNY) of City University of N.Y. (CUNY) systems. It provides an overview of 50 vocational degree programs, indicates which educational institutions offer such programs, and assesses the following characteristics of each: (1) course requirements (number of papers per course, intership and field trip requirements); (2) classroom procedures (utilization of audio-visual aids, interpreters for deaf persons, oral exams); (3) classroom setting (space for wheelchairs, entry ramps, elevators); (4) course environment (location, temperature, space); and (5) physical and personality demands of coursework (lifting manual dexterity, kneeling, or oral communication requirements, work under stress, staple work routine). It also indicates characteristics of the jobs which each program leads to, including worker personality characteristics, physical demands, work setting, and requirements for vision, speech, hearing, and eye-hand coordination. The manual also provides brief narrative job descriptions, and lists professional associations in the field.

Stout Vocational Rehabilitation Institute: Suggested publications for developing an agency library in work evaluation and work adjustment; U. of Wisconsin-Stout, Stout Vocational Rehabilitation Institute, Materials Development Center, Menomonie, WI, 1977.

Stout State U.: Vocational evaluation curriculum development workshop; Menomonie, WI, 1967.

Proceedings of a workshop conducted at Stout State U. in 1967 to plan a graduate program in vocational evaluation. Included are papers presented by Campbell (Problems in Defining Work Evaluation and Work Adjustment), Rosenberg (Role of the Evaluator in a Rehabilitation Center), Speiser (The Role of the Evaluator in a Sheltered Workshop), Gellman (The Principles of Vocational Evaluation), Hoffman (As an Educator Sees the Need to Train Work Evaluators), and Whitten (Activities of VRA that have Meaning for Vocational Evaluators).

Tarrier, Randolph B.: Mainstreamed Handicapped Students in Occupational Education: Exemplary Administrative Practices; City U. of N.Y., Institute for Research and Development in Occupational Education, Mar. 1978, 103 p.

A study was conducted in New York State to identify the administrative factors and/or practices that contribute to successful high school programs of mainstreaming the handicapped and to develop a working report that identifies these factors and/or practices to aid occupational education administrators and supervisors in planning and evaluating programs. Twelve representative school districts were visited and interviewed by teams of advisory consultants. Nine administrative components were rated for their effectiveness and the features of each were outlined. Then a hierarcy or priority listing was established of the significance of each component of the administrative practices. In order of their apparent importance they are as follows: (1) organization and structure of the program, (2) professional training activities, (3) personnel, (4) design of mainstreaming program, (5) support services, and (6) community and state relations. Components found to be unrelated to effectiveness were preparation for acceptance of program, evaluation, and facilities/costs. Other factors found to be relevant included the basic philosophy of staff and administrators, the size of the program, student assignment, curriculum and cooperative education. (Among appended materials are lists of staff members and sites visited, site visit interview and summary guides, a bibliography, and features of an effective mainstreaming program.)

Tarrier, Randolph B.: Mainstreamed Handicapped Students in Occupational Education: Exemplary Administrative Practices; City U. of N.Y., Center for Advanced Study in Education, N.Y.C., N.Y., Mar. 1978, 87 p.

A study was designed to provide the occupational education administrator and supervisor with a source book of effective "how to do it" practices for mainstreaming handicapped students. The objectives of the project were to determine administrative factors and/or practices that appear to be significant in terms of effectiveness of the program, and to develop a working report for use by those desiring information about exemplary factors and/or practices or by those developing and reviewing proposals for occupational education of handicapped high school students. Thirteen exemplary programs have been identified and the administrative components of such programs have been analyzed. Nine procedures to achieve the objectives were used by the research team. Data analysis identified the degree of effectiveness among the program and established a priority listing of significance of each component of the administrative practices. The following nine components were considered: organization and structure of the program, professional training activities, personnel, design of mainstreaming program, support services, community and state relations, preparation for acceptance of program evaluation, and facilities cost. (Appendix includes site visit guides, a bibliography, copies of form letters and correspondence, and a list of the features of an effective mainstreaming program.)

Tarr, Rodney F. & Lewis, James P.: 1974-76 Follow-Up of the Physically Handicapped in Pennsylvania; Pa. State U.-University Park Institute for Research on Human Resources, and Venango Co. Area Vocational Technical School, Oil City, PA, 1977, 84 p.

Conducted to assist vocational educators in planning programs for handicapped students, the project examined selective aspects of the vocational education program, adjustments, and present status of the physically handicapped vocational graduates and the views of the employers and parents towards the training of the graduates. The project was designed to describe the following conditions: the current vocational status of the employed and unemployed physically handicapped in Pa. from 1974-1976 in terms of their vocational adjustment and job satisfaction; the vocational education programs at the area vocational-technical schools and vocational rehabilitation centers for the physically handicapped graduate; vocational programs that would be beneficial to employability for the physically handicapped; and types of special services the physically handicapped might need to succeed in the regular vocational programs in public shcools. Three major outcomes were reported: About three-fourths of the vocational handicapped students were placed in regular occupational classes with nonhandicapped students; in most cases, occupational training was not related to the first job; and about 93% of the employers of the physically handicapped reported that they would consider hiring another physically handicapped worker. Data collection instruments are included in the report.

Texas Educational Agency, Partners in Career Education: A Handicapped Student Needs Assessment, Austin, Texas, 1977, 35 p.

Presented are findings from a 1977 statewide assessment of the career education performance of 1078 handicapped secondary students on a 45-item screening device. Statistical data are presented for 5 handicapping conditions (visually handicapped, orthopedically handicapped, auditorially handicapped, educable mentally retarded and language learning disabled) relative to the performance of nonhandicapped students on 26 subcategories, including goal setting, decision making, career information, job interview skills, use of money and resources, and worker interdependence. Other findings presented includes highest and lowest performance by sub-category. Specific aspects (answer sheet, instructions, and test items) are discussed in terms of their appropriateness for use with special populations. The descriptions of the 9 categories and 26 subcategories in the study are appended.

Thomas, S.: Development and use of a statewide vocational training services chart; VOCATIONAL EVALUATION AND WORK ADJUSTMENT BULLETIN, Vol. 5, #2, pp. 21-27, 1972.

Discusses the need for evaluators to have up-to-date information on job training opportunities avilable for clients. Presents models of two training service charts and step-by-step procedures for developing these charts.

Timmerman, W.: Let's look at SSDI work evaluators; JOURNAL OF REHABILITATION, Vol. 38, #2, pp. 36-37, 1972.

A discussion of the special problems and considerations in the evaluation of SSDI (Social Security Disability Insurance) clients. Emphasizes clear and purposeful evaluation, lucid reporting, and an individual evaluation program approach for each client.

Tindall, Lloyd W.: Program Evaluation and Planning for the Vocational Education of Handicapped Students: Secondary, Post Secondary Articulation, U. of Wisconsin-Madison, Wis. Vocational Studies Center, Madison, WI, 1977, 46 p.

Project PEP (Program Evaluation and Planning: Evaluating Current Programs and Identifying Handicapped Students and Their Vocational Needs for 1977-82) was designed to help handicapped students ages 14-21 make the transition from secondary to vocational, technical, and adult education school (VIAE) in Wisconsin. Information was gathered to identify handicapped students and their vocational needs for 1977-82; the barriers which keep handicapped students from enrolling in and completing vocational courses; and successful techniques which work in teaching handicapped students. The results were used to provide a data base for special and vocational educators from the secondary schools and vocational administratrators from Wis.'s 16 VIAE districts to plan jointly for educating the handicapped in each VIAE district. This core group of educators and administrators from each district continued to meet in order to articulate the development and improvement of vocational education for the handicapped and to develop a strategy to help secondary students enroll in VIAE schools. In addition to providing a data base for program improvement and development, project PEP helped establish many new liasions between vocational and special educators and between secondary and VIAE personnel which can be valuable in helping to increase the number of handicapped students who obtain employable skills through VIAE classes.

Trudeau, Elaine: Digest of State and Federal Laws: Education of Handicapped Children, second edition, Nov. 1972; The Council for Exceptional Children, Reston, VA., 1972.

U. of Pittsburgh, Research and Training Center in Vocational Rehabilitation: Some recent advances and research in vocational evaluation Johnstown, PA, 1967.

Contains papers presented at a seminar conducted to train rehabilitation personnel in procedures, theories, and aims of work evaluation. Included are papers presented by Bregman (The Use and Misues of Vocational Evaluation in the Counseling Process), Cobb (Predicting Vocational Adjustment in the Mentally Retarded), Campbell (Work Evaluation in a Community Evaluation Center), Hill (The Description of a Sheltered Workshop in Vermont Which Performs Unusual and Progressive Contract Services), and Steiner (Determining the Levels of Vocational Capability and Evaluating Job Potential); also included is a description of tests used at the Rehabilitation Center at Johnstown.

U.S. Dept. of H.E.W., Office of Education, Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, Div. of Vocational and Technical Education: RESURGE '79: Manual for Identifying, Classifying and Serving the Disadvantaged and Handicapped Under the Vocational Education Amendments of 1976 (P.L. 94-482); U.S. H.E.W., O.E., BOAE, D.V.T.E., Wash. D.C., Sept. 1979, 48 p.

Part I explains developing vocational education programs and services for youths and adults with academic or economic handicaps which prevent them from succeeding in regular vocational education programs. Part II contains a guide for policy making for vocational education for handicapped youth. Legislation. Coordination. Support Services. IEP. Coordination.

U.S. Dept. of Labor, Employment and Training Administration: All Have Abilities and Skills; WORKLIFE, Washington, D.C., May 1977.

This issue of the magazine is devoted to the needs of employment and training for the handicapped. Contains five articles: How DOL Helps Handicapped Workers; Looking Beyond the Disabilities; Says Radio Dispatcher Wells "10-4"; Yesteryear's Job Risks Led to Union Aid Today; CETA's Problems With Hiring "the Handicapped".

U.S. Dept. of Labor, Manpower Administration: Coordinating CETA and Vocational Rehabilitation Services; FY 75 Course 305, Category III, Manpower Training Institute, Boston, Mass., Course Packet No. 530.

Contains keynote speeches and training material for CETA employees. Contains practical information about working with handicapped.

U.S. Dept. of Labor: Employment and Training Highlights-Facts for the Consumer; Employment and Training Administration, 1978.

A compilation of 21 consumer fact sheets on ETA programs. Explains how the program works, who is service, which Act authorizes the program, how to apply and where to get information.

U.S. Dept. of Labor, Manpower Administration: Handbook for analyzing jobs. Washington, D.C. 1972.

A completely revised and updated 1972 Dept. of Labor publication which supersedes the Training and Reference Manual for Job Analysis published in 1965. Presents a new approach and structured procedure for conducting a job analysis. Through the concepts and techniques presented, current and comprehensive information about job and worker requirements for occupations can be obtained. Especially useful for evaluators who wish to have a guideline for obtaining detailed, specific information about jobs in order to develop evaluation procedures.

U.S. Dept. of Labor, Employment and Training Administration: Placing Handicapped Applicants: An Employment Service Handbook; Wash. D.C., undated.

A guide for employment service personnel in placement of handicapped applicants in jobs; includes registration, interviewing, counseling, preparation for placement, steps in placement such as employer contact, job development, job placement and follow-up, and use of community resources.

U.S. Senate, Subcommittee on the Handicapped, Committee on Labor and Human Resources: Rehabilitation, Comprehensive Services and Developmental Disabilities Legislation. A Compilation; Wash. D.C., 1979.

P.L. 88-164; P.L. 93-112; P.L. 93-516; P.L. 94-103; P.L. 94-230; and P.L. 95-602.

U. of New Mexico: The Training of Professionals in Vocational Education for the Handicapped; prepared by Griffin, Gerals, LaCasse, Robert and others; The Consumer's Guide Series, Vol. III, Albuquerque, N.M. 1978.

This report contains an indepth analysis of a study of 86 projects throughout the country which provided inservice, preservice training or a combination of both to prepare personnel for vocational education for the handicapped. Describes program administration and financial support, service spheres, training staffs, ultilmate recipients, incentives for trainee participation, interagency cooperation, trainee competencies, measurement and evaluation and dissemination practices. Offers recommendations.

U. of Wisconsin-Stout, Materials Development Center: Work Evaluation and Adjustment: An Annotated Bibliography 1947-1977; U. of Wis.-Stout, Materials Development Center, Menomonie WI, 1978.

Contains descriptive annotations of 1,296 periodic articles, speeches and publications related to work evaluation and adjustment for the period 1947 through 1977. Both a KWOC (key-word-out-of-context) and a subject type index are included to aid the user in identification of annotations relevant to a particular topic area.

The Urban Institute: Report of the Comprehensive Service Needs Study (Authorized by Sec. 130, Rehabilitation Act of 1973), The Urban Institute, 2100 M. St., N.W., Wash. D.C. 20037, 1975.

Varela, Rita A. & Bowe, Frank: Self-Help Groups in Rehabilitation; The American Coalition of Citizens With Disabilities, 1346 Conn. Ave., N.W., Wash. D.C. 20036, 1979, 72 p.

An analysis of consumer involvement in the delivery of services for the handicapped, with emphasis on rehabilitation programs. Describes provisions of vocational rehabilitation programs, the formation of self-help groups, a model for self advocacy, and policy implications of consumer involvement.

Vocational Rehabilitation and the Comprehensive Employment Training Act: *A Coordination Guide*. Discussion Draft, DHEW, Office of Manpower, Wash. D.C. 1975.

Includes chapters on deciding whether to coordinate (defines coordination and what can usefully be coordinated); identifying and evaluating the opportunities (looks at common denominators, program issues, advantages, costs, and problems); reviews some specific options and coordination arrangements; analyzes the role of leadership and outlines steps in the process of developing coordination.

Weisgerber, Robert A., Ed.: *Vocational Education: Teaching the Handicapped in Regular Classes*, Council for Exceptional Children, Reston, VA, 1978, 96 p.

Designed to familiarize vocational educators with federal policy and program support for handicapped students. Review of legislation and concepts embodied therein. Specific sections focusing on: (1) orthopedically handicapped, (2) visually handicapped, (3) mentally retarded, and (4) communication impaired.

White House Conference on Handicapped Individuals: *Economic Concerns* - State White House Conference Work Book, U.S. Dept. of H.E.W., Office of Human Development, Wash. D.C., undated.

This brochure contains a summary of an awareness paper by Richard T. Sale, Employment and the Handicapped. Paper discusses attitudes of employers, attitudes of disabled persons, the Law, resolving differences, education and the handicapped, career education, training, placement systems, rehabilitation and industry, the handicapped and job success.

Wentling, Tim L. & Albright, Len: *Administrator's Manual for the Identification and Assessment System*; Ill. U.-Urbana, Bureau of Educational Research, Champaign-Urbana, IL, 1978, 33 p.

A manual instructing administrators on how to initiate and implement a system for identification, assessment and evaluation of the special needs learner in vocational education. Discusses types and uses of information provided by system.

Wilson, Thurlow & Richards, John: *Jobs for Veterans With Disabilities*; Manpower R & D Monograph, U.S. Dept. of Labor, Manpower Admin., GPO #0-583-674183, 1975.

Presents research finds based on a mail survey to 7,800 disabled veterans. Study is on employment of Vietnam-era veterans with service connected disabilities; objective of study was to determine what major problems veterans with service connected disabilities encountered in seeking and holding jobs, and to explore possible solutions. Research was conducted by Human Resources Research Organization (Hum RRO), Alexandria, VA. Contains 130 tables, letters from veterans & data.

Wisconsin Vocational Studies Center: Modifying Regular Programs and Developing Curriculum Materials for the Vocational Education of the Handicapped, Progress Report 1977, U. of Wis.-Madison, Madison, WI, 1977, 73 p.

Reporting the development of multi-session inservice meetings directed at program modification and prescriptive teaching of handicapped students enrolled in vocational, technical, or adult education (VTAE) programs, this document is divided into three major sections. The first section contains a summary of the project activities. Included is information regarding cooperation with other agencies; inservice activities in the VTAE districts; collection of materials for handicapped and special education; project publications for use with handicapped persons; state and national program and conference participation; and consulting and advisory activities. A discussion of future directions concludes this first major section. Section 2 contains the following 3 papers which were delivered at various national and regional meetings: "Building Vocational Education for the Handicapped"; "Zeroing in on the Barriers which keep the Handicapped from Employment--A Big Job for Vocational Researchers"; and "Integrating the Handicapped Student into Regular Classes: Can the Educational Researcher Help?" Section 3 (half of the report) contains summaries of the workshops held in 6 of Wis.'s VTAE districts.

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> Relates to state of the art on interagency relationships involving voocational rehabilitation and other major service systems for the disabled. It is organized in ten major areas.

Council for Exceptional Children/ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children: Computer Search Reprint on Career Education for Handicapped Children, 1979; 1920 Association Drive, Reston, Virginia, 22091.

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Tindall, Lloyd, Vocational Education Resource Material: Bibliography of Materials for Handicapped and Special Education; Wisconsin Vocational Sudies Center, U. of Wisconsin-Madison, 1975-1976 (two years), Madison, WI, Vocational Education Resource Material: "Bibliography of Materials for Handicapped and Special Education-----(VE - PVE - SE)--1975-1976--$3.00 for each year--Dr. Lloyd Trindall, Director, Wisconsin Vocational Studies Center, Box 49, 321 Education Building, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI 53706--Vocational Materials for all handicapping conditions--broken down by area.

Vandergoot, David and others: A Compendium of Placement Related Literature; A Project PREP Publication; Research and Utilization Institute, Human Resources Center; Albertson, New York, 1979

APPENDICES

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RESEARCH

Below are listed examples of research and demonstration projects currently in progress which relate to education, rehabilitation and job training for handicapped.

National Institute of Handicapped Research - FY '79

University of Wisconsin - Stout, Menomonte, Wisconsin

- o National Center for Material Development in Work Evaluation and Work Adjustment
- o Develop and disseminate training materials

Portland State University, Portland, Oregon

- o Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute: Job Development and Job Placement
- o Enhance placement of severely disabled

Columbia University, New York

- o Role of Unions and Management in Job Opportunities for the Severely Disabled
- o Relationships and roles of unions and management in job development and job placement

University of Denver, Denver, Colorado

- o Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute
- o Research in a core area of interagency linkages

George Washington University, Washington, D.C.

- o Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute
- o Attitudinal legal and recreational barriers to the disabled

Amalgamated Clothing and Textile Workers Union, New York, New York

- o Implementation of Affirmative Action for Placement of the Disabled

Human Resources Center, Albertson, New York

- Programmatic Research on Employment Preparation for the Handicapped
- A program for transition from school to work for disabled

Electronic Industries Foundation, Washington, D.C.

- A National Model for Hiring Handicapped Within the Electronic Industries

George Washington University, Washington, D.C.

- Rehabilitation Research and Training Center
- Studying psychosocial, vocational and performance capability of disabled

Wisconsin University, Madison, Wisconsin

- Rehabilitation Research and Training Center
- Rehabilitation of adolescent and young retarded

Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts

- B.U. Research and Training Center in Mental Illness
- Psychological, social and vocational problems resulting from mental illness

Texas Rehabilitation Commission, Austin, Texas

- Technology Assessment and Transfer to Rehabilitation
- Development of prototype devices and their manufacture

Cerebral Palsy Research Foundation of Kansas, Inc., Wichita, Kansas

- Use of Technology to Improve Vocational Prospects of the Severely Disabled
- A rehabilitation engineering center with a core area of vocational aspects of rehabilitation

University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan

- Rehabilitation Engineering Center - Transportation, Vehicle Driver, and Systems for Severely Disabled

- A rehabilitation engineering center with a core area of automotive transportation for handicapped

Texas Tech University R&T Center for Mental Retardation, Lubbock, Texas
- Research and Training Center
- A core area of exploring work potential of mentally retarded, role of counselor, community living

Bureau of Education For The Handicapped - Research Projects Branch On Going as of

University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas
- Kansas Institute in Learning Disabilities
- Focus on interventions on learning disabled adolescents in school and nonschool settings

University of Florida, Gainsville, Florida
- EH/LD Adolescent Education
- Nationwide survey on secondary school programs

Center for Educational Research, DeKalb, Illinois
- Improving attitudes toward mentally retarded children

North Texas State University, Denton, Texas
- Development and validation of a Standardized Leisure Diagnostic Battery to assess leisure functioning of handicapped children and youth

Human Resources, Alberton, New York
- Programmatic Research on Employment Preparation for the Handicapped
- Career development, preparation for work and placement

Boise State University, Boise, Idaho
- Teaching Interpersonal and Self-Management Skills to Mildly Handicapped Adolescents as Part of a Career Education Curriculum

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, Paris, France

- Education of Handicapped Adolescent - An International Analysis of Model Interventions
- A study of educational opportunities in 24 countries including training and possibilities for entering world of work

National Committee of Arts for the Handicapped, Washington, D.C.

- Increasing Career and Life Skills for Handicapped Youth Through a Specialized Instructional Program in Arts
- Investigate a program of arts on the career and life skills of moderately and severely handicapped youth

University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri

- Lifelong Career Development Programming for the Severely Handicapped
- Develop a career development prototype mode, and a staff development training package

TREC Inc., Cambridge, Massachusetts

- Promoting Collaborative Planning of Career Education for Disabled Students
- To promote collaborative planning among local schools, organizations, and employers for more relevant career educational programs and services

Indiana University, Bloormington, Indiana

- Schooling and Early Career Success of Handicapped Youth
- Through national longitudinal survey data, provide determinants of successful transition from school to work

Metropolitan Cooperative Educational Service Agency, Atlanta, Georgia

- Assessment System for Handicapped Youth in Life Role Skills, Areas of Academics, Survival Skills, Health and Job Placement, Job Performance, and Employer in-put
- Improve education decision making and programming; investigate factors which influence job performance

Vocational Education Research

Wisconsin Vocational Studies Center, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI

- Vocational Educational Models for Linking Agencies Serving the Handicapped
- Identify federal programs and relationships, report on present status of linkages, develop models for linkages and cooperative agreements

National Institute of Education, Washington, D.C.

- The Vocational Education Study: A study mandated by the Education Amendments of 1976 (P.L. 94-482). Intramural research as well as subcontracts. Includes coordination of CETA and vocational education; also meeting the needs of special groups.
- A study of distribution of funds of

Wisconsin Vocational Studies Center, University of Winsconsin, Madison, WI

- Research and Development and Services Center
-

Department of Labor Research and Demonstration

Mainstream, INc., Washington, D.C.

- Technical assistance to help disabled get job and help employers comply with affirmative action
- Distribute necessary information on compliance to Federal contractors to 500 companies, handicapped consumer groups, and CETA prime sponsors

Department of Housing and Urban Development Research

Human Services Research Institute, Washington, D.C.

- Develop a research agenda addressing the needs of handicapped individuals for housing and related services
- Identify research priorities, develop specific research trotocols -specific research issues, costs, timetables, etc.

American Council on Education, Washington, D.C.

- Higher Education and the Handicapped, PROJECT HEATH
- Assisting campuses accommodate the needs of the handicapped

WORK EVALUATION SYSTEMS

Below is a list of some of the work evaluation systems which are mentioned frequently in the literature. Most of them are commercially prepared, and the fact of this list is not an endorsement of them, but is merely mentioned for purposes of information.

COATS (comprehensive Occupational Assessment and Training System). PREP, Inc., 1575 Parkway Avenue, Trenton, New Jersey 60607.

JEVS WORK SAMPLES. Jewish Employment and Vocational Service, 1913 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 10103.

MACDONALE VOCATIONAL CAPACITY SCALE. MacDonale Training Center Foundation, Research Division, 4424 Tampa Bay Blvd., Tampa, Florida 33614.

MOVE (Multidimensional Objective Vocational Evaluation). Hester Evaluation System, 120 South Ashland Blvd., Chicago, Illinois 60607.

MCCARRON-DIAL WORK EVALUATION SYSTEM, Department of Psychology, Indiana State University, Terre Hauth, Indiana 47809.

MICRO-TOWER, Institute for Crippled and Disabled Rehabilitation and Research Center, 340 East 24th Street, New York, New York, 10010.

SINGER VOCATIONAL EVALUATION SYSTEM, Singer Education Division, 3750 Monroe Avenue, Rochester, New York 14603.

TALENT ASSESSMENT PROGRAM, Materials Development Center Department of Rehabilitation and Manpower Services, School of Education, University of Wisconsin - Stout, Menomonie, Wisconsin 54751.

TOWER (Testing, Orientation, and Work Evaluation in Rehabilitation). Institute for Crippled and Disabled Rehabilitation and Research Center 340 East 24th Street, New York, New York 10010

VALPAR COMPONENT WORK SAMPLE, Valpar Corporation, 2701 East Thomas Road Unit B. Phoenix, Arizona 89016

VIEWS (Vocational Information Evaluating Work Study). Additional Research Institute,

WREST

Public Forum

On the Education and Employment of Handicapped Youth

January 30, 1979
Washington, D.C.

Youthwork, Inc.

INTRODUCTION

Youthwork, Inc., is an intermediary corporation formed in January 1978 by a consortium of private foundations to help the Office of Youth Programs of the U.S. Department of Labor implement the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977. An intermediary corporation is a private non-profit organization that assists government agencies to program public funds. Youthwork is an intermediary between the private and public sectors; it is a private/public partnership.

As part of this partnership, Youthwork conducted a public forum on the education and employment of handicapped youth on January 30, 1979. The forum's purpose was to solicit advice and information from private citizens and government officials on the design of a $5 million national grants competition that Youthwork will conduct in spring 1979 for exemplary in-school projects serving handicapped youth. In other words, Youthwork through the forum actively sought out the assistance of concerned persons familiar with the problems of handicapped young people before it started telling local schools, agencies, and community organizations what they could and could not do to obtain a federal grant. The forum thus served a major purpose of an intermediary corporation: to enable private citizens to participate in the allocation of public monies.

The present volume reproduces a partial transcript of the forum. Readers of the transcript may learn for themselves what a valuable quantity of expert advice and information was obtained. Some editorial deletions from the testimony have been made in the interests of clarity and continuity.

On behalf of the Youthwork Board of Directors and the staff, I can say that the information gained at the forum has proved exceptionally useful. Much of this information was translated into the text of the application guidelines for the grants, and all of the recommendations of forum witnesses and panelists will bear on the actual selection of grantees.

Special thanks are due Rep. Shirley Chisholm (D.-N.Y.), who kindly obtained authorization for Youthwork to use a hearing room of the Congressional Annex Building in Washington, and to the many witnesses who took time off from busy schedules to assist not just Youthwork but also the nation's handicapped young people.

Finally, I want to offer my personal thanks to Youthwork staff members Robert Eckert and Rudi Boone for all their efforts in developing and coordinating the forum. Special thanks, too, to Youthwork associates Regina Carmel, Barbara Hampson, and LaVonne Manley for their invaluable assistance.

Corinne H. Rieder
Executive Director
Youthwork, Inc.

YOUTHWORK PANEL MEMBERS

PUBLIC FORUM ON THE EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT OF HANDICAPPED YOUTH

JANUARY 30, 1979

JOAN WILLS, member, Youthwork Board of Directors, and Director for Employment and Training Programs, National Governors Association, Washington, D.C., Chair for the Forum

LEONARD T. CONWAY, member, Youthwork Board of Directors, and Executive Director, The Youth Project, Washington, D.C.

ALEX DELGADO, member, Youthwork Board of Directors, and Professor of Sociology, Metropolitan State College, Denver, Colorado

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DAVIS HAINES, President, Public Welfare Foundation, Washington, D.C.

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HARRIET MICHEL, Office of Youth Programs, U.S. Department of Labor

MYRTIS H. MOSELEY, The Edna McConnell Clark Foundation, New York, N.Y.

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THOMAS SCANLON, President, Benchmarks Inc., Washington, D.C.

JOSEPH SEILER, Office of Youth Programs, U.S. Department of Labor

DOROTHY SHIELDS, member, Youthwork Board of Directors, and Assistant Director of Education, AFL-CIO, Washington, D.C.

EUNICE KENNEDY SHRIVER, President, Jospeh P. Kennedy, Jr., Foundation, Special Olympics, Inc., Washington, D.C.

ROBERT TAGGART, Administrator, Office of Youth Programs, U.S. Department of Labor

RONALD TARILIAN, Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

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Morning Session

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Ladies and gentlemen, because we have a very tight time schedule today, we are moving right along so that we have an opportunity to hear from everybody who has so graciously come to participate in this hearing today.

Some of you may know that Youthwork is a nonprofit organization. It is a very young organization. We have just had our first birthday. We were incorporated January 10th of 1978. It is an effort to create a public/private partnership between a consortium of six foundations and the Office of Youth Programs in the Department of Labor to promote the employability of young people, especially through our institutions of education and learning and other community service organizations.

Youthwork's primary task during this past year has been to administer exemplary programs in school under the Youth Employment Demonstration Projects Act of 1977. Other Youthwork activities under YEDPA include the preparation of grant application guidelines, identifying and recommending funding of explemary programs, providing technical assistance to projects, developing a knowledge base--and we think this is very important--about education and work transition programs, and participating in the development of a national youth policy.

Under Youthwork's first national competition held in the spring of 1978, the Department of Labor awarded demonstration grants totaling $15 million to 48 projects selected from over 520 proposals. The projects, which feature interrelated components of study and work in conjunction with the special support to aid youth in the transition from school to work, seek to foster cooperation between local education institutions, community-based organizations and the CETA system. Although we believe our organization has indeed learned a great deal by administering this program for a short period of time, we are acutely aware that the public interest must guide our future operations.

In the spring of 1979, Youthwork will conduct another national grants competition, which will seek to identify exemplary programs for young people not normally served--specifically, the handicapped, teenage parents, high school dropouts, offenders and the very-hard-to-reach youths. We are holding these forums to increase our own understanding of the relevant issues and problems.

Our agenda reflects the interest shown by a wide variety of people in the public and private sectors in aiding the unemployed handicapped youth to make the transition from school to the world of work and self-reliance.

We will hear from you, the experts at the national, state and local levels who will share their knowledge of handicapped youth in the areas of education and work. In addition, operators of local exemplary programs will testity about their own experiences.

In addition, we are fortunate to have among us some young people who are graduates of programs designed to helps the disabled person to function independently.

So, we have a full circle: those who formulate policy and those who implement and live with those policies and who hopefully will provide input resulting from their experiences back to the policymakers to improve future legislation.

I think it's now time for us to launch into today's activities. I guess first what I should do is to introduce myself, which I just now realized I had not done. I am Joan Wills, the secretary of the Youthwork board.

The outline of this activity throughout the day is, first, we think it's absolutely essential to get the problem in perspective. Before we can decide what it is we are going to do, we need to know what our problems are. With that in mind, Mr. Tom Songster of the Kennedy Foundation, Special Olympics, will be talking with us. He has with him people he would like to introduce.

THOMAS SONGSTER, JOSEPH P. KENNEDY, JR.,

FOUNDATION, SPECIAL OLYMPICS, AND

ELIZABETH LABUKAS, HANDICAPPED ADVOCATE

MR. SONGSTER: Good morning. Thank you very much. It is my pleasure to address this panel on behalf of our president, Mrs. Eunice Kennedy Shriver.

The concern of the Kennedy Foundation and others for employment of mentally retarded individuals has been one of long standing. Some of you may remember that President Kennedy had strong interest in this area also, and he did something about it. He got behind this project, and, with this effort, the federal government hired more than 16,000 mentally retarded people within a very short time. It wasn't easy.

Examinations and examining procedures had to be changed, regulations had to be changed; and most of all, attitudes had to be changed about employing the mentally retarded.

We all know that a large percentage of the mentally retarded, as well as other handicapped people, can handle a variety of job skills. It is estimated that about 42 percent of the mentally retarded are employed. Out of that 42 percent, however, 79 percent are underemplyed in the jobs they do have.

We at the Kennedy Foundation have put together a small demonstration project. It was derived because Mrs. Shriver saw in Special Olympics mentally retarded people who did very well in sports. I asked the people in sports and recreation why the mentally retarded couldn't make good employees in the fields of recreation and sports, and they didn't have any real good answers. That's why here this morning we have with us a graduate of our Kennedy intern program, Elizabeth Labukas. Elizabeth is one of 17 mentally retarded people across the United States whom we've trained as a recreation aide for our program. 16 of those 17 have graduated and are employed full-time. Some are employed as swimming instructors. They have passed the very difficult water safety instructor's examination provided by the Red Cross, and they are working--teaching normal people swimming-- in a YMCA in Las Vegas.

The cost of training for Elizabeth and others has not exceeded $5,000. There is no reason, except lack of money, why 1,700 or 17,000 or 170,000 mentally retarded people cannot be trained to get jobs in most any field. Elizabeth has some brief remarks that she'd like to share. Elizabeth?

MS. LABUKAS: My name is Elizabeth Labukas from Maryland. I graduated from Bowie Special Center in 1977, and in 1978 I was a Kennedy Intern. I learned how to be a bus aide and a teacher's aide. I learned many things in my training program. Now I am a full-time staff person for the Maryland Park and Planning Pre-School. I meet the children at home and walk them to the bus. I help them get on the bus. I teach them to use seatbelts and ride safely. At the school we play games with the children. We do art. After art I help fix the snack. On Friday we swim. I help the children dress and get into the water. I can swim, so I can help teach them. I was state swim champ in the Special Olympics. I like having a real job like my brothers and sisters do. I want to work for a long time. I do a good job at my work. I have friends at my school and there are others who need the chance for a real job too.

MR. SONGSTER: Thank you, I think it's important for the panel to understand the Elizabeth is not your borderline, mentally retarded person. She is a Down syndrome, mongoloid. There are literally hundreds of young people, like Elizabeth, who can do the job when they are provided practical and meaningful training.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: I think that it would probably be best if we hear from Mr. Lopez, then from all the panel members, and then start the questioning. Mr. Lopez?

MR. ROBERT LOPEZ, HANDICAPPED ADVOCATE

MR. LOPEZ: At the age of 12 I quit school, against my parents' wishes. My father was severely disabled, so I decided I'd quit school and go to work to help support the family. At 15 I enlisted in the Army, and upon my release I started working at anything I could get. I was working at a packing house when a side of beef fell on me and broke my back and crushed my leg. After undergoing several operations, the doctors decided I would never walk again. In the course of those operations--14 in all--I became addicted to drugs. After I told the doctors of my addiction, they responded that I should go to the public health hospital in Fort Worth, to get cured. I was also told that because of my injuries I was disabled and being that I had no education at all, would never be able to go to work again.

Well, I wasn't buying that. So, as soon as I was fitted with a prothesis, I went to all the various agencies in Denver to try to get funds to go to school, or learn a trade or something. They all turned me down. They said, "No, you're disabled; you're handicapped; there's nothing we can do for you." The only place I was referred to was the Goodwill Industries to work, which at the time paid something like 50 or 75 cents an hour. I was married and had a family, and there was no way I could do that. So, I found a job with a construction company and I was doing the same work as everybody else. But when they found out I was an amputee, they asked me to sign a statement that if I was ever injured because of my leg or any other cause, they would not be held responsible. So I left that job.

I went back and tried to get more help. In the meantime, I got a letter from the Social Security Administration saying that I was disabled. After I started receiving disability payments, I again went out to various agencies and was told they could do nothing for me. My family and myself then moved to California, where I met Dr. Joel Fort, who worked on drug and alcohol abusers. He had to start the program from the ground up, and today that's one of the best programs in the country, but, again, the federal government told me that the only way I could work in a program like that was to go out and get a degree. Being that I only had a sixth-grade education, how was I going to do that?

Anyway, I decided I'd try. I went and got my General Educational Development Certificate and moved back to Colorado. I met Mr. Alex Delgado, an old friend of mine, and he encouraged me to enroll in college. I have received my bachelor's degree and I'm in a master's program. That's about it.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Very impressive.

Sharlene Hirsh, Director of the Executive High School Internships of America.

SHARLENE HIRSH, DIRECTOR, EXECUTIVE HIGH SCHOOL INTERNSHIPS OF AMERICA

MS. HIRSCH: Good morning. The Executive High School Interships program was founded in 1971 in New York City and has spread now to 30 cities in 18 states. We've had about 14,000 students in our program, and the funding mainly comes from local school systems.

Ours is a full-time internship program, the kind that we usually think of as reserved for college or graduate students, but our students are 16, 17 and 18 year olds masquerading as adults. They spend a full semester on leave from their regular classes as special assistants to management-level people in both the public and the private sectors. They are unpaid to learn how organizations function and decisions are made. Our students learn how priorities are established. They get into the budget process. They represent their agencies before public organizations. They go out and see clients. They actually make decisions themselves. No one would ever believe that they are high school students.

They do this four days a week full time, and on Fridays are in seminars on management and administration. Our organization is part of the Academy for Educational Development, and our job is to go around and promote the program and develop the staff. What we are trying to do is to maintain quality out there, which is one of the most difficult jobs that I have.

During the 1977-78 academic year, we had a grant from the Office of Career Education and U.S. Office of Education and a contract from the Office of Gifted and Talented to mainstream gifted and talented or high-potential handicapped students into our program. We used eight pilot sites: New York City, and Buffalo, New York; Des Moines; Orange County, Florida; Palm Beach County; Springfield, Illinois; Sacramento and Compton, California. What we did was to focus on three

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areas of handicapping: hearing, sight and orthopedic impairment. We were trying to find the most severely disabled students that we could and to try to prove that if they were selected appropriately, as we try to do with everyone, and given the right support services, that they would function as well as all the other students in our program.

We placed these students at management levels in banking, law and criminal justice, radio, social services, accounting and data processing, commercial art, health and the aerospace industry. We tried to avoid the stereotypical occupations associated with the handicapped, so that none of our students were with teachers of the handicapped or rehabilitation counselors, newsstand operators, or any of that. We were trying to open new horizons for out students. We kept our standards high. We used the same selection criteria for the students with disabilities as those without.

We were in an ideal position to test the viability of mainstreaming. Why? The ten coordinators and I who worked on this project had really had no experience at all with handicapped people. We hadn't worked with them. We had no training at all. If this is going to work out in the worlds of employment and education, that's who you're going to be dealing with.

For the most part, our students did very, very well, the same as you would expect for any executive intern. They did exciting things. They drafted legal briefs and memos. They compiled job specifications. One of our interns was involved in layoffs at the aerospace industry and in trying to find new jobs for people who were laid off. We had one student who was involved in divorce trials and separation trials and in custody suits for children in a legal services agency. We had a student with the director of medical illustration in a hospital who was working alongside people who had medical school training and was doing technical drawings, and her clients were medical school professors, and doctors and so on.

So, these were pretty high-level kinds of slots, the same as they are for the rest of our students. Most of the students used this internship to explore careers. That's why they were there; that's what they were about, and this confirmed their interest in a career. We had a student, for example,interested in pharmacy. He was placed with the head of pharmacology in a hospital and he is now studying pharmacy in college. Some students didn't know what they wanted to do at all and were really floundering around until they got more specific about the kinds of careers that they wanted to follow.

We had one student who was placed in a major worldwide bank in New York City. She learned the skills in her department in one-fourth the time that it took anyone else ever to learn them in the history of the bank, so they grabbed her. There was no having to convince anybody there about her. Most of our handicapped students develop a much greater sense of confidence. They begin to read lips more proficiently to speak more intelligently, and to cope more effectively with emotional problems.

We also found our nonhandicapped students gained from the experience. In one instance a hard-of-hearing student insisted that our coordinator go to the rest of the group and describe her disability and prepare them all. She was very concerned. The coordinator did this and the rest of the group said, "Hey, if this is mainstreaming, why are you making such a big issue? We want to treat her like the rest of the group. Why don't you have confidence in us?" So that was a group of students who said, "We can handle it. Just get off our backs and get out of our way. We know how to relate to one another." Generally that was the case. They're far more sophisticated, I think, than sometimes we give them credit for in handling a whole variety of human situations.

What I'd like to do very briefly is go into some of the difficulties that we have that I see and that I hope you'll think about and try to address.

The first one is student recruitment. We had to go out and do a real education job to convince teachers and principals that there were handicapped people out there who were at the same time talented. We would go and they would say, "Well, which do you want, gifted, or do you want handicapped?"

Another problem is the significant difference in social maturity between the students in our program who came with disabilities and those who did not. We attribute that, perhaps naively, to the fact that most of the disabled have been in very isolated settings all their lives.

Also, the handicapped students are older chronologically than the nonhandicapped. The average age of our handicapped students was 19 and 20. The average age of our nonhandicapped student was 17 and 18. That's because many of them have been held back in school over the years too. So, you're generally dealing with a physically more mature student, but a socially less mature student.

Another problem was that much of the central office special-education people didn't know any students. You go to the director of special education in your district and say, "We just want a small number. We're starting out. Here's what we want." They didn't know who the kids were. They were behind the times in terms of the federal regulations on what they were supposed to do. What that means was that our coordinators had to go in and smoke out that local teacher in the classroom of handicapped students who really knew those kids and who could really tell us who those kids were. You can imagine the levels you have to go through to do that

As far as the maturity level is concerned, I think that what's needed is a pre-orientation period of almost a whole semester for our handicapped students. During that one semester, the student might go out for a couple of days a week or a couple of hours a week to get oriented to that setting. We can also do a lot of different kinds of role-playing things, how to relate to a secretary, how to present yourself in a situation, how to sell a product.

Second of all, the question of sponsors. That's obviously very important, where you put your students. That's the key to success in our program. We have to have a particular kind of sponsor who's committed to the standards of our program. They have to be able to provide that sophisticated level of placement that says, "You're not a kid anymore; you're with us; we're going to introduce you as a member of the staff; we firmly believe that you can function as well as a special assistant in this office, given the right kind of training and support, and we're prepared to provide it."

Now, in this particular program, we did have some sponsors, a couple of sponsors, who let us down. We had one situation, and this happens in internship programs, where the person who was to be the sponsor traveled all the time and delegated it to someone else who firmly believed that no one with less than a Ph.D. could do what we wanted students to do. So, what did that young woman do? Clerical work. What did we do? Fought it all they way and finally pulled her out. What that points to is the need for close staff monitoring. You have to go out and see every student on the job; interview the sponsors. Things go wrong. We cannot have a 200 or 250 ratio per staff member. That's what a lot of co-op work-study programs have. Our best pupil/teacher ratio is something like 1 to 25 or 1 to 30. After that, our program washes out.

Now, that is a cost-effective staff ratio. Our program operates at a cost of $645 a student--about a third of what it costs to operate a regular school program.

The third area is support services, very important. We were really surprised. We went to buildings that supposedly were barrier free. We had one medical school with a brand-new ramp outside of the building. A student tried to use that ramp--dangerous. Any moisture on that ramp and she'd go crashing down onto the sidewalk. Why? There was no incline at the end of the ramp. They had installed it all wrong. They never know that before. They hadn't had any handicapped people in that medical school before. This was the most independent young woman in our whole program. She had her own specially equipped van. She didn't want anyone to help her in any way, anyhow. What did she have to have? A staff member come down every morning and let her in and park her van. The end of the day, they had to get her, take her out of the building, and get her van and put her in it. That was humiliating for her. She didn't like that at all. So now the medical school is looking into rebuilding that ramp.

On another aspect we found that many of our students required extensive personal counseling because of home environments. Over half of our students--I'd say three-fourths--had been in foster homes or were in foster homes or were in unstable parent situations. We had one student who had been raped by a foster father. We had another student whose natural mother had thrown her out of a window --how's that for direct rejection?--necessitating 100 stitches.

We also had to attend to the needs of low-income students because our program requires lunch, requires transportation, and it requires some clothing. What this all points to is the need for a lot of staff time to compensate for all these counseling and support problems that arise. That's very important.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Thank you. You have with you today Darryl Grice, who is going to talk.

DARRYL GRICE, EXECUTIVE INTERN,

BUFFALO, NEW YORK

MR. GRICE: My name is Darryl Grice and I am from Buffalo. I was a recent intern last spring for the Executive Internship program. I was a C student in high school. Although I was a C student, I really wanted to know about broadcasting; that was my interest. School was not the thing for me at the time. So, the Executive Intership program--I found out through my counselor--introduced to me broadcasting. I worked at radio station WUFO for the second semester of my high school senior year, and I got a lot out of it. We learned how to manage the station, the business aspects of the station and the administrative part of it, sales, and my favorite part, broadcasting.

Right now this internship that I was in has led me to college, which I am now attending, four years. I am majoring in communications and I hope to finish my four years and become a radio announcer some day.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Thank you.

MS. HIRSCH: I should just mention that it took Darryl a whole semester sitting at home to get into college because the state rehab officials sat on his application. Before our program, he was evaluated for a month in Albany and they told him, "You can't be a radio announcer. Handicapped people can't be employed in that field." He decided to show them and his counselor got him into our program and the counselor became the advocate for Darryl and went back, and then the state said, "We'll reconsider it since he's done so well." Then what happened was cutbacks in the budget, his counselor got fired from the school system and Darryl's application sat there. Finally our coordinator had to intervene. So, he's been sitting at home for a whole semester wasted, waiting for the state to respond.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: We will now open up for questions from the panel.

MR. TAGGART: I have too many questions. As policy makers we are going to have to view problems in a lot of different ways. Throughout these hearing we are going to have a clash between stories of individuals, and stories of individual needs, and the types of decisions we have to make as policymakers that translate those needs into bureaucratic terms.

Some of the issues that we are going to have to address have been raised pointedly. One is definition of the universe of need. We have a problem in the handicapped literature that when we look at it from an employment perspective, disability is defined as the inability to hold work. Not until someone enters the labor market and is unable to succeed are his impairments translated into disability. So, we have a problem and we have almost no information about the universe of people who could benefit from the services that might be offered through employment and training programs.

Second, we have the question of who is average and who is exceptional within that universe of need. We need to determine whether the types of people we've had at the table are typical or atypical, whether when we reach down and try to serve them whether those are the types of individuals we will reach, or whether we'll have to go further down the employability spectrum and offer more intensive services.

We have questions about whether we should offer services, or training, or employment as our primary focus. We have surveyed our youth employment training program to get the model handicapped programs, and there are not a great number of them. About 4 percent of our programs' clientele is handicapped. Within that, almost all those programs are service programs. They are programs not aimed at training, not aimed at employability development, but aimed as stop-gap measures, ones to build character, to build capacity to deal with the world but not directly focused at employment. We need to know how much we can focus them toward employment, and how much we can focus them toward training.

I think we need to ask ourselves how much we should aim for a sheltered labor market at the end of our efforts and how much we should aim at a mainstream labor market. Now, we have an example here where they create jobs at one end. Most of our employment training programs in fact create jobs. 80 percent of our participants are in work experience programs. Should we target our efforts toward a continuum that places an individual in a subsidized job, or should we try instead to place them into a mainstream labor market? I think it was pointed out very clearly here that there are extra costs and extra services that have to be offered. We need to know how much that extra is.

We have to know what institutional linkages we need to establish to make these programs work at the local level.

We need to know about continuity of services. All our employment training programs are short term. They run from six weeks, six months, sometimes for a year but rarely more than that. I am hearing from this conversation that we need to somehow break through that so that we're dealing with the same youth in a continuing fashion for two, three or four years. We want to know how that can be achieved.

We have questions about what expectations we should have of these projects. How can we really judge whether they're a success or failure, or should we not try to judge that? That is a fundamental question we have to deal with, because now many of our decisions are driven by these performance criteria.

I have a particular question about when impairments are disabilities. We've found, for instance, that from 1969 to 1972, there was a massive shift in the labor market from the category of marginally disabled to severely disabled. We know that most of the shift was due to a decline in job opportunities and not to the change in the universe of those with impairments. How much do we need to change our labor market institutions to force people to do more hiring, not to discriminate against the handicapped, and how much do we instead have to work with human resource development?

All these are broad questions and I just wanted to lay them out at the start so that we could get on.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Would anybody like to attempt to even answer one of Bob's questions?

MS. HIRSCH: Maybe I could just quickly take a stab at a couple of them.

I don't know where we go on this last issue, which is one of discrimination in employment. We had some serious situations in that regard. For example, we had one placement where people found it difficult to deal with a hearing-impaired individual whose speech was also impaired. It was also difficult for him. A student coming out of a program for hard of hearing still doesn't have the same kind of quick skills of dealing with a whole roomful of people that the rest of us do. There's a lot of adjustment involved; things aren't picked up immediately. How much, then, does the staff compensate for this? What kind of assistance is needed, and how do they feel inside when they hear that student talk? There are a lot of emotions going on out there, and how is this dealt with? That one wasn't dealt with very well at all for a very long period of time.

By contrast, we had one student with severe emotional problems of cerebral palsy with a sponsor who was totally committed to her who provided an internship. She had an Executive Internship where most would not have been willing to produce that. She caused a certain amount of disruption in that office because of her emotional needs, and they just hung in and they wanted her to have that kind of experience. It made quite a difference in her life.

So the environment is extemely important, and how you break through, and what kinds of demands you make, and what you can do when they aren't delivered is an issue your staff ought to debate and think about and see how people have handled in the past.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Any other questions:

MR. SONGSTER: I think the sheltered workshop is certainly a way to go for the mentally retarded in part. But we have here this morning some 20 people who have been trained about as far as they can go in the sheltered workshop, and I think we have to look at the private sector to find jobs for Elizabeth Labukas and others. Money is limited. How many little packages can the sheltered workshop produce, particularly when they pay such low amounts of money? As Mr. Lopez says, 50 or 60 cents an hour is certainly not a meaningful position to hold. In the case of Elizabeth, she has a full-time, full-paying job, 40 hours a week, and is working outside the sheltered community.

MS. MARTIN: How long did it take to train Elizabeth to become a teacher's aide, and what was the cost involved? Do you have any estimate of what it would cost to keep her in an institutional setting compared with where she is now?

MR. SONGSTER: The cost of keeping her in an institutional setting would be about three times as great as it is to have her in her community. It cost a little less than $5,000 to train Elizabeth. It is a cooperative program with the Maryland Park and Planning Commission and the Kennedy Foundation. We put up the salary for the on-the-job training that took place within Maryland Park and Planning and they had three people already within the agency who worked for the handicapped. So, those three people along with the staff were trained and went through the job training and it took us a little bit over a year totally to do this, but it was very, very intensive training.

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CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Could you speak to what kind of training facility, and how many staff were there, and how much support services were available?

MR. SONGSTER: There were three direct service people, and then there were two other people that worked there in addition to that, and of course the Maryland Park and Planning did some of the administrative things, but she works in a center every day, works with the bus driver, works with the people who do the lunches and so on.

MR. TARILIAN: Dedicational amounts in 1978 maddated quite a few changes in dealing with handicapped and, Sharlene, one of them was mainstreaming. You gave some answers about designing programs prior to mainstreaming, maybe for a semester. Since it's such a massive problem, where do you think the resources should go in possibly building up a local educational agency? What type of assistance should we be providing now to foster mainstreaming? Do you have any other ideas besides this one semester?

MR. HIRSH: Our staff felt very nervous about getting involved in this project. They really wanted to get involved, but worried whether they were adequate to handle the problems. Why did they feel inadequate? When you haven't had any exposure to something, very often you feel that you might fail at it and very often you feel inadequate. So, I think we have to attend to some of those needs, too, and get staff involved with the students before they're actually going out and placing them, which is a big responsibility. We consider ourselves as having a zero failure rate, and even one misguided placement can hurt our program--and the student, too, and we're very concerned about that. So, I think we really need a lot more capacity building, if that's the proper term, of the staff that are going to be relating to these students.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Other questions?

MR. SCANLON: What can we do to create or to encourage the creation of more jobs in private industry for handicapped persons?

MS. HIRSCH: Once we break through with our first good placement, it's easy. They tell the others long and loud that they're involved in this. The student goes along with them, at Chamber of Commerce meetings or whatever. By the way, Chambers of Commerce have been very effective helpers of our program. Most of them have committees on career education and they have been good in opening things up.

One of the selling factors of our program is it's 1 to 1. We say to a sponsor, "You tell us what you want, all the qualifications, personal, intellectual, whatever, and we, like any good job counselor, will go out and try to find a pool of students who will meet that, and then you get a choice and they get a choice. If you don't see anyone, say it." So that there's a lot of honesty in our program, and we find our sponsors very honest because they don't want to let you down later on, and they also want the commitment to be very clear. We don't ever assign anyone to anyone. That's how it works best, I think--through a good placement process.

MR. SCANLON: But you have been successful in placing in the private sector?

MS. HIRSCH: Oh, yes. We used to be something like three-fourths in public sector. Now we're almost three-fourths private sector, and, frankly, I agree with my colleague that private industry is where it's at. One of the reasons is that it has the extra funds to afford to do the special things for students, to take them on trips, to take them out to lunch. I mean, a business lunch is an educational experience for a young person, and we want the student to have those extra perks around that the public sector seems not to be able to afford any more.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: We want this to be an open forum to the maximum extent possible, and I'like to introduce you to Mr. Harry Wheeler. Harry is probably one of the oldest CETA prime sponsor--not in age--from Newark, New Jersey. He is well experienced in terms of trying to solve some of these many problems we're faced with here.

HARRY WHEELER, NEWARK, NEW JERSEY

MR. WHEELER: For the young people who look to the practitioners, our game is linkage. The gentleman over there raises a question about how do we hook into private sector, because four out of every five jobs happen to be in the private sector, and there is a ready-made built-in process. It's called the PIC, Private Industry Council. Now, one of the things that President Carter has done is to urge the business community to come together with the Labor Department in this whole job effort, and the emphasis is on creativity and flexibility as it relates to this particular kind of structure.

So, I would hope that you don't start thinking about creating something else when you already have a newly created structure, and the emphasis is on flexibility, and most people think that the PIC is for on-job training and that's unmitigated nonsense. The name of the game is creativity, and the folks in this area ought to be exploring how they can hook into the private sector through the PICs in the prime sponsors throughout this country.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Let me just explain that each local prime sponsor throughout this country will be establishing a Private Industry Council through the next few months, and, Harry, that leads right into my question: Mr. Lopez, you said that a part of your problems have been directly related to the fact that sometimes supervisors in different points thought that what you needed was a high school education and a college education, and that without that, you were not able to serve other people. Do you have any solutions to that dilemma?

MR. LOPEZ: Yes, For one thing, like, I was considered disabled, but, I considered myself disabled in only one way: no education. So, I would say that if a youth is handicapped, put him in school instead of giving him these public-work jobs and sending him out for the summer and giving him six months of work. Go out and mop floors, at the end of six months of work what does he have? The same thing he had before. He's unemployed. Send him to learn a trade. Give him money to go to school. Let him get an education, because that was my biggest hangup. It wasn't my physical handicap. It was my education.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Within the CETA system things are decentralized. Jobs are created in the local community. People go to work and they live and go to school in the local community, and one of the things that it seems to me we're going to have to face is somehow, some way, developing some kind of institutional linkages between national programs. How do we mesh national kinds of activities and national kinds of programs so that we can begin to institutionalize, bring some expertise to the local community, so that indeed that's where the money is in terms of education, and in terms of the CETA system?

MS. HIRSCH: In our program, we operate by persuasion, obviously. You go to a district, and now that we're on the map, people come to us. In the beginning, they certainly didn't.

Our program is decentralized. It's really a franchise kind of operation, if you will. The local school system votes, usually by school board resolution, to adopt a model of this program. We have certain bottom-line standards: a full-time coordinator free of all other responsibilities; a full semester of academic credit in regular subjects. This is not play; it's not extra-curricular; it is not extra year of high school or whatever. Our students graduate on time. The kind of placement I described is management-level placement so that our students aren't Xeroxing and doing other things.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Then you basically train that staff.

MS. HIRSCH: That's right. We train them.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Thank you very much. The next person who will be putting our problem into perspective is Eugene Beard. He's a parent, Howard University. Mr. Beard?

EUGENE BEARD, PARENT, HOWARD UNIVERSITY

MR. BEARD: Thank you for inviting me to share some facts and opinions about the handicapped youth who are black--more specifically, about the problems and issues that revolve around their making the transition from school to work.

When I accepted the invitation to speak on the problems and issues facing handicapped black youth, I did not realize the sheer awesomeness of the task. To do what is needed to overcome the problems of handicapped black youth would require the creativeness of W.E.B. DuBois, the ingenuity of Benjamin Banneker, and the fervor of Toussaint L'Overture. To do what is needed cannot be done until the basic research has taken place, and unless it is done soon--very soon--handicapped black youth, as far as their entrance into the job market and as far as their education are concerned, will probably be qualified to be classified as an endangered species.

Most are worse off than they were a decade ago when the federal government declared that the black family was deteriorating. Today more handicapped youths are unemployed, more in mental institutions, more are abused or killed by their parents, more are involved in family violence, more are in jail, and this litany could continue ad infinitum.

There was, until a few years ago, a growing perception that black families had become self-sustaining and no longer needed further impetus or federal assistance, and you're probably wondering why I'm interjecting black families. One would be remiss if he did not look at the handicapped black youth from a family context. Indeed, there are many who believe that the nation's debt to black familes had been so fully paid that whites themselve were becoming victims of reverse discrimination. In their view, few, if any, qualities existed, and those that did exist could be attributed to the deficiencies in motivation, character or intellect of individual blacks. The spread of these discerning ideas has altered progress. Some of the gains that black families have earned are rapidly being lost. The era of retrogression has set in.

Consequently, the plight of the handicapped family member has reached crisis proportions. He or she is found in the dirtiest, least desirable occupations and in the lowest levels of the employment pyramid, while only a few, a very few, have made it into the craft, technical and management jobs. Few are in positions of real significance.

It is apparent from the experience of recent decades that we can never count on the normal functioning of the economy to equalize educational opportunities for handicapped youth. Such equality will come about through full compliance with equal-opportunity laws and regulations in employment, removal of job ceilings, and intensive programs for training and placement in skilled desirable jobs. Measures of this sort, however, will still not solve the problems of jobless handicapped black youth. Poorly educated, untrained, heavily concentrated in urban slums, ill suited for steady employment, they constitute a group that is alienated and crime-prone.

What is needed, among other things, are guidelines for the development and implementation of programs designed to facilitate the handicapped youth's transition from school to work. Guidelines are needed for transitional programs designed to counteract a generalized education system that undereducates as well as miseducates the handicapped youth.

Guidelines are needed for a transitional program that will provide incentives to or stimulate both the private and the public sector to modify some existing jobs to fit the functional capacities of handicapped youth.

Guidelines are needed for transitional programs designed to provide employment opportunities whereby handicapped youth can not only become ego-involved but also receive those supplies necessary for the improvement of a damaged self-concept. To do anything less is to provide the opiates of temporary relief, but the pain will not be removed.

Guidelines are needed for transitional programs that focus on the emotional problems often associated with both handicapped and black, many of which are caused by the actions and reactions of the nonhadicapped world.

Guidelines are also needed to ensure equity between legislation and the availability of support services--for example, the current phenomenum of dumping, which is currently going on under the guise of deinstitutionalization.

When peace is established among nations, the trained minds of handicapped persons may play a leading role. When cancer, heart disease, high blood pressure and leprosy, are eliminated, it may be the trained mind of a handicapped person that does it.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Thank you very much, Mr. Beard. Are there questions? Bob?

MR. TAGGART: When we look at the disabled universe, the black is about twice as likely to be unable to work at all as a white youth or a white adult, and 75 percent of all adult black males who are outside the labor force are either ill or disabled. Frequently it is asked why do we keep having this problem. It's almost directly correlated with increases in disability or claimed disability among minorities. It is very clearly a problem where those who are disabled or have an impediment or a handicap, which is compounded by education, or race, or family background, are very, very much worse off.

The question is, when we approach this as a policy how do we attack that? For instance, in the new rewrite of our regulations for our youth programs, we wanted to emphasize handicapped and one of the comments that came in from the handicapped community was to broaden the income criteria for eligibility for our programs. We use income criteria in order to target these programs to those in greatest need, and it would seem to me that if you had a low income criteria you would be more likely to get the dollars to those people who have not only handicaps but also have other problems. It's one issue that came up and most of the handicapped community said broaden the eligibility with no income criteria and the result of that, I would imagine, is to move away from those who have compounded handicaps.

Second, you'll find, and we did from doing the programs across the country, that the majority of model handicap programs are not in your central city poverty areas. They're not in Newark, because there're 10,000 nondisadvantaged youth who are lining up for the same jobs and the same opportunities. The needs are so great that the handicapped is pushed even to the end of that hiring view. We find that our programs for the handicapped are in fact in Connecticut. They're in Utah. They're in places where there's not a great minority problem or as great an unemployment problem. When you have other problems that are pushing on the handicapped problem, you have a lot of nonhandicapped youth.

My question is, how do we attack this? How do we change it?

If we try to go to the private sector and say, "You take the handicapped," we may be able to persuade them to take the least handicapped individual, the one that only has an impairment that can be overcome. He doesn't have a deficit in education or a poverty background. How do we then get that private sector employer not only to serve that individual but to reach down to somebody who very much needs the service?

MR. BEARD: I see two problems involved. One is equity in terms of distribution. Another is equity in terms of assets. You yourself pointed out that programs are not located where they are needed in terms of the black community. Another problem is in terms of how that program is perceived and how it is staffed. So often persons who are located within a black community, their programs are not staffed by community people. So, as a result, this becomes a roadblock. It becomes a barrier to the service provider and the service receiver.

MS. MARTIN: What are the priority research issues from your point of view in this whole area?

MR. BEARD: I can't say there is a priority. Some of the things that I think should be looked at immediately--number one, there is very little reliable data on handicapping conditions among black youth. Also, there is very little reliable data on the family context in which the handicapped youth comes. For example, the coping strategies that are used by families, the support services that are available to families with handicapped youth, and so forth and so on.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Obviously you have some concerns about the institutionalization. Could you speak to that?

MR. BEARD: I think it can be descriptively characterized as dumping. The institutions in my opinion have one goal in mind, and that is to be in compliance with a judicial judgment. There are very few, if any, support services that are provided to people who are released from mental institutions or other types of institutions, and, as a result, they become prey to the most vicious type of exploitation. I mean you just can't take a person out of an institution and say, "You 're on your own," or put him in a halfway house and say,"You're halfway there."

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: My concern is: Are we at loggerheads with part of what we heard earlier in terms of the desire to mainstream young people, to put them in as a part of the same school system, put them as a part of the private-sector involvement that we were talking about earlier? Yet at the same time questions are being raised about whether or not it is wise to pursue pell-mill a program for deinsitittutionalization, and if it is unwise, why, and if we continue to pursue it, what kinds of support services are needed in the community?

MR. BEARD: I can't answer your question in terms of are we at loggerheads. However, I can say that the legislation has grossly exceeded the services that are available to make that legislation meaningful. I think, in the main, mainstreaming is a farce, and the reason I say that is that there has been very little preparation on the part of persons who receive the handicapped child from the non-mainstream arena, and in the main, Americans are not too amenable in terms of accepting handicapped people. Survey after survey points this out. We really don't want to be around handicapped people, to put it grossly.

MR. TARILIAN: You talked quite a bit about guidelines in different areas. I translate that term "guidelines" into funds. I think if you talk about funds, where do you see more funds going when you talk about generalized education versus vocational skills?

MR. BEARD: More funds are needed in vocational-type programs, and before that happens, something should be done to change the concept that we currently have of a vocational program. It is not one that is equivalent to a person who's in an academic program, and, as a result, a lot of handicapped persons hesitate going into such programs.

I think the public schools are probably our greatest hope in doing something immediately, because this is a system or a mechanism, however inefficient, that' already in operation.

MR. TARILIAN: At what level do you think we should put tremendous emphasis?

MR. BEARD: In the very early years, the elementary level.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: I hate to do this, but we're going to be running behind. I thank you very, very much.

We are now going to have another panel of people who have responsibilities for trying to translate such eloquent words that we have just heard into actual programs and policies.

to get a sense of the national perspective, we will first start with Paul Hippolitus.

PAUL HIPPOLITUS, EMPLOYMENT ADVISER,

PRESIDENT'S COMMITTEE ON EMPLOYMENT

OF THE HANDICAPPED.

MR. HIPPOLITUS: What I will attempt to do this morning is to describe for you some of the critical areas that you must consider as you make an effort to better serve handicapped youth in education and training opportunities.

The first area centers on policy determination--those formal and informal directives and designs that determine the operation of an organization. Policy determination can be divided into two areas:

First, top-level commitment. No program can ever expect to adequately serve handicapped individuals unless its stated policies and internal directives are designed so as to effectively address the needs of this minority. Before anything will happen in this area, the top of the administrative structure must have made it clear in both spirit and letter that the programs the agency administers will serve handicapped people. The premise here is: What the boss wants, the boss gets. So, this is where I believe it all should begin--at the top.

The second dimension to policy determination, program design, is the point where most well-meaning programs fail. We must remember that throughout our history, handicapped people have not been included in the definition of who regular public programs serve. Consequently, our systems of service delivery have been devised in such a manner as to automatically exlcude the handicapped. This type of exclusion is systemic. The system discriminates, not the individual program manager, and that is the reason why after equal-access mandates for the handicapped have been proclaimed, handicapped people still don't appear. Believe me, it's not because they aren't there. They are. It's because the program design fails to meet their needs.

To better illustrate this point, let's consider the example of a regular vocational/technical school that has just opened up for the handicapped students. The local superintendent and school principal issue strong directives that indicate that handicapped students will be served. The top commitment is clear. The school is made accessible physically.

Yet only maybe 10 percent of the area's handicapped eligible student population show up for admittance. Of that 10 percent, half may fail within the first year. What went wrong? Well, what went wrong is simple. The superintendent and school principal generalized about the handicapped population. They thought if they simply made entranceways wide enough, bathrooms accessible, street curbs, etc., this would make the program accessible. They forgot about the program's design. You see, with the handicapped population you have enormous extremes. Physical access is surely important, but it isn't the sum total of the system modification that's necessary to get handicapped youths into the program. This program, as most other programs, needs to consider and modify its program design as well.

The point is, don't stop with top-level commitment. Consider also your program design and how that program automatically or systemically excludes handicapped youths.

For some handicapped individuals no degree of regular program modification will ever meet their needs. This segment surely has career potential -- this fact is proven daily, but their disability is such that no reasonable modification of the regular program will supply this. What is needed is a program that will teach them a skill using special materials and special instructions. Eventually the special program may improve their ability to function to the extent that they can move out into the regular curriculum. The policy should be flexible so that this movement can occur.

So, the program design is the cornerstone to serving handicapped individuals. Here is where the system is tuned in such a way as to truly allow entry.

The second general area that needs to be addressed is interagency cooperation. In the context of serving handicapped individuals, interagency cooperation becomes an even more important issue, since handicapped individuals have many more agencies to contact than non-handicapped youth. Each agency should be in communication with the other, exchanging at least information regarding the coordination of the respective services. This communication should be well established or formal, though informal channels are certainly better than nothing.

The third policy area that needs attention is staff development. It can be broken down into three areas. One, identify qualified staff to monitor programs for the handicapped; two, establish training programs to provide staff with minimal competencies to serve handicapped individuals; and three, establish general informational efforts designed to develop staff awareness regarding handicapped individuals.

I think all three components are integral policy concerns if we're serious about our commitment to serve disabled youths. If I had to select, though, one of the three as the most important, I would have to pick number one. Unless someone is assigned the responsibility for monitoring the program for the handicapped, no one will assume that responsibility. Further, having a staff person or office with this duty gives the rest of the staff a contact point for consultation and a constant reminder regarding their obligation. So, consider all three points under staff development and be sure to implement number one.

The last major item that must be considered is the art of involving handicapped people and their parents in the decision-making process. The tendency of many programs is to attempt to make generalizations. This is especially evident in career guidance given to some handicapped youths. This guidance comes not only from the counseling community but also from teachers, placement specialists and sometimes from parents who may have limited expectations of their handicapped children. Generalization in the guidance given tends to stereotype handicapped youths in traditional careers, or it fails to challenge the capabilities of disabled youth. We at the President's Committee on the Employment of the Handicapped long ago realized that when dealing with the human spirit nearly nothing is impossible. I've personally met a blind sportscaster, a double--leg amputee who has a fourth-degree black belt in Karate, a swimming instructor with no arms, and on, and on. These examples may be exceptions, but they point out the fact that disabled people can do almost anything they want to do. The point is that we professionals don't always know what's best for them in every instance. We need to bring disabled people more directly into the decision-making process.

MR. DELGADO: You mentioned support systems. Do you view the family as a support system?

MR. HIPPOLITUS: Very definitely. They should be involved all along in the educational plan as well as the training and placement. A lot of support can be gained from that.

CHAIRPERSON WILL: We'll now hear from Bob Humphries, who is a man with awesome responsibilities but perhaps not enough resources.

ROBERT HUMPHRIES, COMMISSIONER, REHABILITATION SERVICES ADMINISTRATION, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE.

MR. HUMPHRIES: The Rehabilitation Services Administration is a vital factor in the federal establishment in providing services for disabled people. Traditionally, RSA has been concerned with strictly vocational rehabilitation and for many years and in many states that has meant people between the ages of majority and the normal termination of the working life. My idea of what RSA is and should become is much broader than that, however. I think, too, that within a number of states a great deal more attention is being given to the younger individual, ages 14 and 16, for example. There is no exclusion in the Rehabilitation Act for people of any age to participate, but, as a matter of practice, often they are excluded if they are too young or too old. I think all that is changing considerably and I will do the best that I can to make efforts to assist in that change.

In addition, the Rehabilitation Services Administration now has a program that is highly important to me in developing this idea of a broader focus for disability service programs through RSA, and that is the developmental disabilities program. That program is a national program of basic state grants, which involves an effort that I think should be a model in terms of future efforts for the provision of coordinating resources, for bringing together various elements within the state, with respect to providing for local involvement in service provision. With the enactment of Public Law 95602 the program has been expanded to include all developmental disabilities the onset of which occurs prior to the age of 22 and which affects two or more major life activities. This is the kind of approach that I see the Rehabilitation Services Administration very much needing to get into. I see us as having a concern for questions of prevention, of amelioration of maintenance, of habilitation, of rehabilitation--five levels of care looking toward development of a comprehensive network of services for all disabled people, a continuum of care that will ensure, to the extent that we are able, that disabled people--children, adults, old people alike--are provided all the supportive services that they require in order to allow them to function as fully and as normally as they possibly can.

How does Youthwork and its projects fit into that conceptualization? Clearly there is a major interest, as I have suggested here, of the Rehabilitation Services Administration in all aspects of disability programs, and it is for that reason that I am here speaking with you to give you an idea of what we do in RSA and how we might be of assistance to this and other programs in providing a perspective from a service delivery point of view.

All kinds of cooperative arrangements are, from my perspective the way of the future in maximizing the resources that we have available to us. Clearly those resources are limited. The budget that we have for fiscal 1980 throughout the federal government is characterized as austere. With the assumption that the level of funding generally for all programs in the federal government is for the near term going to be somewhat restricted, we must take maximum advantage of what resources we do have, make them more efficient, make them work for us, make sure that duplication and overlap and waste and confusion are not the result of our throwing money at programs. We need to look at programs and scrutinize them carefully to make sure that we're getting the most out of them.

I think the kind of interaction that can occur through a program such as that under the CETA program with RSA and with other agencies can be highly instrumental in making the most effective use of the dollars that we do have.

MRS. SHRIVER: I find it rather disconcerting to hear about all of these expansion programs and still the rehabilitation agencies have very little information on families. We all know that the aspiration of families determines a great deal how a younster turns out, but in terms of the Chicano, in terms of the Indian, in terms of the black child, white child, all those aspirations are different. I'd like to ask why we don't have research on that. What ought to be done about that and what plans do you have?

In terms of the Rehabilitation Act that has been developed up to now, the focus has been on the individual, and the service system has been geared around the individual. There are provisions within the law for services to families of individuals, and particularly in the case of projects for migrant workers, this has been an essential component. One thing that I am very----

MRS. SHRIVER: Could you tell me about the migrant worker program?

MR. HUMPHRIES: Yes. That was a program that developed through the 1973 Rehabilitation Act and currently we have eight projects in eight states, those states that have the highest level of migrant worker populations.

MRS. SHRIVER: How many people would that include? Do you have any idea?

MR. HUMPHRIES: Well, the actual level of funding is rather limited. It's a million and a half dollars for those eight projects. Essentially it provides seed money in cooperation with the states that are affected by the projects. One of the objectives of that is to provide a total social and rehabilitation service environment to the family and to the individual who is disabled. But there are, as I say, only eight of those and it's never been funded at a level that it probably should be in order to cover the needs of the entire migrant population.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: We'll now hear from Vincent Moretti, a man out there in the firing line many times.

VINCENT MORETTI, HUMAN RESOURCES
DEVELOPMENT INSTITUTE, AFL-CIO

MR. MORETTI: What I will try to do today is give the committee an idea of what the AFL-CIO commitment is in rehabilitation, some of the things that we have done over the years, and some of the things we feel should be done in the future.

The AFL-CIO represents 14 million workers, which is a rather large working force. Within that 14 million, we have several hundred central bodies. We have a rather large resource of people. We don't pretend to know much about rehabilitation as such, but we do know a little bit about training and employment.

HRDI, Human Resources Development Institute, has been in operation now since 1968. We were formed in 1968 to address the needs of the disadvantaged. George Meany is chairman of the board and we have 13 trustees, who represent the largest national and internatioal unions. Down through the years we have been charged with trying to meet the needs of all of the significant segments, which historically, up until the amendments to the Rehabilitation Act, the handicapped have been more or less left out of. We have been meeting the needs of the ex-offender, women in non-traditional jobs, the minorities into the building trades, and over the years we've been doing a pretty credible job. Last year alone, we developed over 22,000 jobs in our 60 offices in the United States and placed over 8,000 people that would meet the criteria that I just mentioned. The jobs that we had left over we turned over to the employment service to use our resources to put the disadvantaged to work.

For the last 18 months, we took on a project in nine cities to test our capabilities of providing services to the disabled and the handicapped, and we are rather proud of our efforts. In 18 months we have developed 1,818 jobs and placed 719, but I think more significant than the numbers placed is that we average $4.23 an hour for all of our placements. We feel that a job is really not enough. The AFL-CIO does not look at the minimum wage as a living wage today. So, our offices do concentrate on what we call quality jobs. We do not place anybody in a job without having some progression. We feel that every individual, regardless of their disability, should have an opportunity to progress and not be locked into a dead-end activity.

The youths that we served among the 719 in the last 18 months would be the 18-to-21 group, for a total of 20 percent. We feel that there probably should be more concentration on the youth. This is where the future work force is coming from. We know that this is the area that we're going to have to concentrate on. I don't have to tell you the figures of youth unemeployment. It reaches 50, 60 percent. I don't think there's any accurate count made on the youth rate that are disabled and handicapped out there. They're discouraged and they're out of the work force.

We feel that one of the most important parts of our activity is getting our constituency group involved. We feel that before they can become involved we have to make them part of the problem. President Meany, of course, in the executive council sets the policy of the AFL-CIO and it is our job, the Human Resources Development Institute, to interpret the manpower problems in the country, to go out and try to get the constituency to follow the policy, and part of the activity we have been conducting for the last year and a half is the educational components, and this is involving our constituency in selected areas in the country, our state AFL-CIOs, and developing programs that would make them more aware of the rehabilitation community, and what it's all about, and what is needed, and how we can better involve them.

We have had programs in Connecticut with the state AFL-CIO, in Missouri, in Seattle, Washington. We have just developed a program with the Kentucky state AFL-CIO. We offered technical assistance to this organization and consequently now they have developed a statewide program and job development for the handicaps that's going to be sponsored by Kentucky state AFL-CIO. That was funded through the CETA mechanism.

So, we feel that there is a lot to do. We hope that we can become more involved in the plans. We feel that we have a lot to offer to the rehabilitation people. I'm amazed as I move around the country and the rehabilitation community says, "Well, where have you guys been?" The consumers don't know where to go or how to gain entry into our various apprenticeship programs. These are some of the things that we hope to accomplish over the next years.

One of the things that we were rather proud of last year is that along with the National Alliance of Business we conducted some 50 vocational exploration programs. Each program brought in about 100 youngsters between the ages 14 and 17. These were basically juniors and seniors. Out of that group we tried to pilot some of the handicapped youth. Five hundred and fifty kids in about six selected areas of the vocational exploration program were given an opportunity to come in and meet with employers. Unions sponsored the programs, our central and local state bodies. The employers for the most part had their first experience in looking at a disabled and handicapped youth.

It gave the youngster the chance to be able to determine what career he might want to follow. We helped design buddy programs, along with the exploration program, where we assigned some of our union members to help the youngsters in some of their choices.

This is one of the areas we hope this committee will look into rather strongly. We know that the austerity program is on. Everything is cost effective now. You only have so many dollars to go around, but we feel that the vocational exploration programs are one of the real areas that I think we can get some meaningful results out of providing some services and maximizing some of the resources that we have to offer.

We know that we have a lot of problems in the AFL-CIO and we are addressing them everyday. We know that we have to deal with seniority. We have to qualify individuals to be able to apply for jobs. But it seems like the time is right in this country for bringing more disabled people into the work force. We are looking and examining all of the contract lines in our collective-bargaining agreements, and we hope that we will be able to effect some meaningful change in contract language, which is going to be important to move more people into the work force.

So, those are some of the things that we are doing. The commitment of the AFL-CIO and the executive committee and President Meany has been strong over the years. The last resolution that was passed that was adopted December, 1977, said,"The problem of chronic disease, disability and dependency is becoming increasingly grave for the nation and represents both a serious economic burden and a major social responsibility. Organized labor realizes that this problem cannot be solved quickly. We are aware that without jobs for everyone, the problem of the employment of the handicapped worker will not be fully solved and only part of the answer provided. Anything which adversely affects the right of men and women to earn a living is of deepest concern to organized labor and our active involvement is essential to its resolution. The AFL-CIO supports the employment of all qualified handicapped individuals and in order to carry out these objectives, urges all affiliates to, number one, support efforts to carry out affirmative action legislation which requires government contractors and subcontractors to take affirmative action to employ qualified handicapped workers; number two, support and participate in the work of the Industry Labor Council which has been formed to help resolve the problems of rehabilitation and employment of handicapped people; number three, support efforts to eliminate not only architectural barriers which prevent millions of handicapped individuals from working, but also those which exist in such places as hotels, museums and parks which prevent these citizens from participating in the normal activities of society; and, finally, number four, negotiate with employers to protect qualified disabled workers from being denied continued employment."

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Are there questions?

MS. MICHEL: You placed, you say, 719 individuals and developed approximately 1,800 jobs?

MR. MORETTI: Yes.

MS. MICHEL: There's a differential. Why isn't the placement rate a little higher? You have the slots, obviously.

MR. MORETTI: The question is the qualified worker. We tried to qualify everybody for all of the jobs that we developed, but, unfortunately, we can through our resources develop a lot more jobs. Now, those 1,800 jobs are turned over to the rehabilitation community, over to vocational rehab, and they use our resources for the placements that we can't make. So, this 1,800 jobs could represent a lot of more placements, but our actual placement rate is 719.

MS. MICHEL: Many of the handicapped persons who are so designated in the private sector are people who have had industrial accidents, how many of those 719 are new employees to the labor market and had not worked before?

MR. MORETTI: Ninety percent of all of these placements are not from industrial accidents. These are handicapped and disabled people without industrial accidents. We are working on the disabled worker within our own mechanism, and we're looking at the workmen's compensation and all of the modifications of jobs, but that's a different component. Now, we have breakdowns in, as I said, the youth, education and ethnic group.

MS. MICHEL: I'd like to see a profile of the workers. I'm interested in their work history.

MR. MORETTI: Ninety percent of all these placements would meet severely disabled conditions, 50 percent disability or more.

MR. TARILIAN: In your criteria for selecting the state and locals for funding, do you put any restriction at all on their accepting people into the apprenticeship program? Do you make any kind of demand that some of the people who are going to be selected for the training programs will be given apprenticeship slots later?

MR. MORETTI: The Human Resources Development Institute runs 22 apprenticeship outreach programs. These programs were primarily designed to bring more minorities into the building and construction trades. We have been very successful in that. We're going to integrate the same concept for the handicapped and disabled to qualify for the skilled trades.

MR. TARILIAN: I understand that, but do you make any kind of provisions before they are funded that they will take so many into the apprenticeship programs, in this particular program?

MR. MORETTI: You mean develop goals and quotas?

MR. TARILIAN: Not goals and quotas, but that some provisions for the handicapped would be in your apprenticeship programs

MR. MORETTI: No, we don't make any provisions.

MS. MARTIN: Youthwork, like every other agency, has also been hit by the austerity program, and in trying to look at and evaluate and judge the number of proposals that I'm certain we'll get, I'd be interested if either one of you or both of you gentlemen could give us some clues as to what to be absolutely on the lookout for in terms of what is good; what to be on the lookout for in terms of what may not be so good; and if there are any pitfalls that you think we ought to know about, I think it would be helpful.

MR. MORETTI: We look at it from the employment perspective, and we feel that the amount of earning that the individual will make is of prime importance. We are very concerned with the type of training individuals receive. We know that they are not training individuals for jobs for the ready job market or the immediate job needs today, and we feel that we in the AFL-CIO within all of our resources can identify some of the types of training that might be necessary so we can train individuals for real jobs. That's where we spend a lot of money and a lot of hours, on training programs, and we can't place them. During the course of the years, with HRDI, we have had in our offices individuals that have been through five or six training programs and they still can't get a job. So, I think that's kind of a basic thing.

CHAIRPERSON WILLIS: Evelyn Ganzglass from the Department of Labor.

MS. GANZGLASS: My concern is about the employment prospects after the training. Could you address two points that were brought out this morning? One is the need for a job restructuring, and the other one concerns training in the idea of having more specific limited training in modules where you are not trained for the total job or to the total occupation, but for one or two tasks within that.

MR. MORETTI: Well, module training I think is very important. We think that that could probably be the answer to meeting all of the immediate job-market demands. Our apprenticeship programs are four to five years, but the bulk of all the jobs, I think, in this country do not take that comprehensive type of training to do. I think it has to be coupled along with the realism of the job of what was available in the community or any given occupation.

As for job restructuring, we look at that from two angles. We are interested in job restructuring from the viewpoint of our disabled and injured workers on the job. Instead of moving and individual out on workmen's compensation, we take a good look at modifying the job or restructuring a particular job to be able to adapt to an individual's disability. This is an area that really doesn't hit on wages, where most of management and our constituency get bogged down.

It's an area where we can work very closely together and we are willing to work in that area. We think it's very important.

MRS. SHRIVER: One of the areas that black mentally retarded young people have been put in is recreation and physical education. Has any thought been given or has any place tried to restructure recreation or physical education jobs similar to the way the medical profession has done in nursing, and then get parks or other public agencies to accept those youngsters on a paid level?

MR. HIPPOLITUS: Some preliminary work has been done. We have a subcommittee that deals directly with the recreation and leisure employment and participation of disabled people. What we've found is that particularly in the commercial field, there is a tremendous occupational potential there for the category you described as well as other handicapped people. It's really an untapped resource.

MRS. SHRIVER: How could we go about doing more of that in that direction?

MR. HIPPOLITUS: I think we have to educate both parents and counseling people, special-education people, to the broad spectrum of career potential that exists, and this is part of it.

MEMBER OF AUDIENCE: I'm a job developer, and one of my problems is with the union seniority system. It's often the case that you have to be a truck driver, say, for five years to be eligible for an entry-level position. Do you have any comments on this?

MR. MORETTI: Seniority is very important to the AFL-CIO. It protects not only the clerk, but also the new working coming in. We realize that there are problems in bringing disabled poeple in, and we're looking at it and looking at the seniority. We're not about to dismantle any of our seniority rules, but I think that we can bring entry level people in by restructuring the jobs.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Bob Herman.

BOB HERMAN, ASSOCIATE DIRECTOR, BUREAU OF
EDUCATION FOR THE HANDICAPPED, U.S. DEPARTMENT
OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE

MR. HERMAN: There are a tremendous number of handicapped children who are not making it into secondary years and certainly are not making it into any kind of realistic job market. It is astounding. The extension of services for a handicapped child from 18 to 21 years old is absolutely essential and nothing has been done to make that kind of activity happen.

President Carter is now asking Congress to appropriate about a billion dollars this year solely for the education of handicapped children. Over $860 million of that could go to supporting Public Law 94-142, the Education for all Handicapped Children Act of 1975, which is an extraordinary piece of legislation for any of you who have followed it. Briefly it is the passport, we hope, to a full and free appropriate education for every handicapped child in this country.

The issue is that we move handicapped children more into the regular classroom, are we going to be able to move them more into the regular society? I think certainly the next part of the Education for all Handicapped Children Act requirement is the requirement on society to bridge the gap between school and a decent school opportunity and now a decent employment opportunity for the handicapped child.

The concept of job structuring and job restructuring and job redisign, the modular training program, are all things we have used when our nation was in a great emergency, such as during the Second World War, when we all of a sudden found that women were suitable and appropriate on the assembly line and that jobs such as riveting on ships and being pluckers and other kinds of things were things that women could actually do given appropriate materials, equipment and training.

Now, with handicapped children, we're into a similar kind of situation. I don't wish to draw a parallel completely, but we are spending great time and effort and money on a curriculum development, early intervention at the earliest possible years to mitigate or ameliorate their handicapping conditions, but we are not yet extending the effort, or intelligence, or the ability to make that kind of bridge between school and society. With the Education for the Handicapped Act being a mandatory piece of legislation and placing burdens upon the state education agency to supply full services and related services to all children, we are finding a difference of opinion among certain agencies, the rehabilitation people and others regarding their responsibilities or legal opportunities.

Recently we signed an agreement with the Rehabilitation Administration, Commissioner Humphries, and with Commissioner Ernie Boyer, representing the Office of Education. We have signed a common agreement with the vocational education, special education and the vocational rehabilitation organizations to do certain kinds of things and to cast aside certain kinds of barriers, real or artificial, that seem to separate us from delivering a whole service to a handicapped child.

We have just finished two pamplets on paraprofessionals in education of handicapped children and services to handicapped children, and also in handicapped people serving as paraprofessionals in service activities. These two pamphlets have hit this country like a storm and they are being requested in numbers for which we never anticipated and which we don't have the financial resources to print enough copies.

We are also at work with Sharlene Hirsch of the Executive Interns of America in getting and working with exceptional handicapped children, gifted, if you will, handicapped children,as Sharlene Hirsch of Executive Interns did for so-called normal children.

The number one priority of the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped for 1979 is improving vocational education, and secondary and technical education of the handicapped children. Not that we have left the early childhood intervention issue behind, but we are now believing that our attention must be focused toward affecting change in the field of special education, the field of services to handicapped children, beyond special education, which I consider one of the prime issues concerning the handicapped child's welfare and the success in this society.

MS. MARTIN: This is a very short question. As Youthwork looks at the proposals that undoubtedly will be coming before us, I wonder to what extent we should be trying to identify programs that have new teachers, new counselors, etc., or is there some kind of retraining effort going on now within the existing educational structure that will do this? I raise the question because I have some familiarity with the Civil Rights Act and school desegregation and I know that there was some difficulty in telling the existing teachers that you now have a new job, and I wonder was there a lesson learned out of that so far as the handicapped is concerned?

MR. HERMAN: The Bureau about four years ago developed some priorities for its very large discretionary teacher training program. Among those high priorites was vocational education and teacher preparation. We have almost a $16-million program this year for supporting training of teachers in special education and retraining the teachers, in service training for teachers who would like to change areas or come into special education. Other than bilingual and certain specific services for disadvantaged kids, it's probably the only real area of teacher shortage today,as far as we understand it. We have not been flooded with proposals for vocational education teacher preparation or teacher retraining. There is not a great sense of enthusiasm or urgency, I feel, on the part of the training colleges and universities and institutions of higher education to leap into this matter. There are only about 220,000 handicapped kids receiving any kind of vocational or occupational services in this country.

So, without a great demand, we don't see a great supply of teachers coming out or we don't see a lot of people going into the business of preparing the teachers. The funds are there. Each year, the bureau's amount will be set aside for vocational teacher preparation and vocational teacher retraining and it is not fully subscribed to.

MS. MARTIN: Just for the record, you say the funds are there, so in our attempt to help communities develop programs, is one of the things we can say that there are funds available so that Youthwork doesn't have to try to build training or retraining?

MR. HERMAN: I would say that's right. If we can, through your good services and your good offices, get some publicity out there to the institutions of higher education, and state education agencies, concerning training of teachers, we would like to see double the number of vocational education teachers preparation and service teacher training projects come into the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped.

I think the Bureau of Education of Handicapped would like to meet Youthwork and any other federally sponsored effort halfway, at least, in development of curriculum and administration activities in the early intervention into a handicapped child's life so that that child can receive full career education preparation, full job opportunity knowledge, and also to raise the expectations of parents and elementary school teachers and other people that handle and work with the handicapped child as to what that child can possibly be doing in later life.

MR. CONWAY: Mr. Herman, I was wondering if it would be possible for you to share with the Youthwork staff the materials on how local districts and such can apply for those funds and whether you'd be comfortable with Youthwork taking an even more aggressive posture in sharing with school districts that information, encouraging them to apply.

I guess the second part of that question is what is the timetable for application, and if people were to apply in the next upcoming months, when would it be possible for them to receive funds so that we can realistically consider as part of our funding process whether such funds would be available?

MR. HERMAN: Absolutely is the answer to the first, absolutely and positively in favor of that.

As to the timetable, we are at just the right time now for the submission. We will have another submission starting in August and September into October for all of our programs, and the amount of money there for fiscal year 1980 will be, Congress permitting, similar to the 1979 available funds. Any applications submitted this summer or fall would be available for funds around May 1st of the following year. So, the time is just right for people to begin to work that thing through in hope of a 12-months-later participation in this program.

If there are time constraint kinds of activities or unique kinds of things that can be done, we could shepherd them through the process much more rapidly.

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Afternoon Session

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Congresswoman, let me say how pleased and honored we are to have you with us today. Your reputation in terms of servicing the youth of our nation, the poor and the disadvantaged is well known to all of us and we are very glad you could be with us today.

THE HONORABLE SHIRLEY CHISOLM,

HOUSE COMMITTEE ON RULES

MS. CHISOLM: I am pleased to have the opportunity to participate in this forum today to discuss a topic that has served as the central focus of my professional and political career, and that is the future of our youth.

In the decade that I have served in the Congress, six of those years as a member of the House Education and Labor Committee, I have observed that the gap between education and work is largely the result of social, cultural and economic changes that are altering both the way we treat youth and our perception of them. Perhaps to a greater extent than any of our other social institutions, this nation's schools are being drastically altered by these changes. Today we are engaged in an intense debate and re-examination of the goals and effectiveness of our educational institutions. We know full well that millions of children leave our schools each year unable to cope with the realities of today's highly competitive labor market. Sadly, however, the most important policy matters affecting these educational institutions, in my opinion, too frequently involve politics, power, and the protection of turf. This nation's classrooms have become the new battleground, not so much a war against illiteracy and unemployment, which we are all rightly concerned about, but a struggle to enforce the civil rights revolution of the 1960s and 70s. We must understand that the struggle for equity in educational and employment opportunities continues for black and brown children and has now been expanded to include exceptional children with physical or learning disabilities.

We have recognized for a long time that the subtle interplay between racial discrimination and discrimination against the disabled has worked in a most insidious manner to produce a significant over-representation of minority children in classes for the educable mentally retarded. Some experts have even suggested that special education provides a new vehicle for discrimination against children on the basis of race and language. Yet, I have only recently begun to detect a sensitivity and an interest in the concerns of poor and minority youngsters among the predominantly white, middle-income exceptional-children's lobby that functions here in Washington.

Let me speak just briefly on the impact of handicapped legislation on the workplace. The real impact of the legal mandates written into Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 are just now beginning to be felt at the local level. And, predictably, the media and some school officials have overreacted out of fear and ignorance to what they term the considerable burdens imposed by the mainstreaming concept. Just yesterday I saw a headline in The Washington Post that read "Mainstreaming of Handicapped Squeezes Budget." Nevertheless, the national commitment to implement the promise of these federal laws ensuring access to an appropriate education for all children cannot be ignored. The issue for this panel today, in my humble opinion, is how to build upon the current maintreaming and accessibility activities of school systems to better prepare the workplace for the future job-seeking clientele now matriculating in grade school

Let me turn to another aspect of the youth unemployment problem that I find particularly disturbing. Over the last several years, the labor-force participation rate, which is a measure of those who are both unemployed and looking for work, has been increasing for white youth but progressively declining for black teenagers. The unemployment rates of white youth tend to more closely correspond with the fluctuations in the economy at large, but for black youth unemployment and labor-force participation cannot be explained merely by changes in the state of the economy. The information I have reviewed indicates that at no time in the last 20 years has the unemployment rate for white teenagers risen higher than 17 percent, while unemployment among black teenagers has remained at 25 percent or more since 1958.

My friends, I earnestly say to you in terms of what is happening that we run the danger of permanently excluding a generation of black and brown youngsters from just participation in the job market. Where are these youth who are no longer in school, looking for work or receiving public assistance? They are in our streets creating record levels of violent crimes; they are crowding our juvenile penal institutions as multiple offenders; they are young mothers trying to raise infants and at the same time complete the maturation process themselves; and they are drug addicts and alcoholics who have used these substances to escape the hopelessness and the plain drudgery of their everyday lives. We must all share responsibility for the shortcomings of these youth and together we must work to develop meaningful employment options for them, and let's get away from traditional ways of doing things with set tradition. The America of the '70s is no longer giving us the answers to many of the problems that we are grappling with. We must not be afraid to innovate and to experiment.

Just a word about the 1980 budget. Implicit in that document is the assumption that inflation is much more of a serious threat to the economy than is unemployment. Absent from the President's discussion of his proposed budget is an honest, in-depth analysis of the kind of unemployment this nation has been experiencing. The pockets of high unemployment, especially among youth, has created disparities that now resemble an economic caste system, and to allow this disparity to persist, the President in effect supports the trade-off theory of unemployment and inflation, that a certain level of unemployment must be tolerated in order to fight inflation.

Although the American people have witnessed a high rate of unemployment and an increase in inflation in the last 10 years, the President insists on using this descredited trade-off theory in an attempt to stabilize the economy. One factor in the President's decreased emphasis on reducing unemployment is the growing public perception that unemployment doesn't hurt as much as it used to.

Well, of course, this is understandable because what do most Americans know about the ghettos and the barrios and the reservations of this nation? These people are invisible. Concentration of unemployment among minorities and young people in certain communities has helped to lower the profile of unemployment in the American public's consciousness. When the unemployed person is black and a teenager from the central city, the problem is less immediate to a middle-class suburbanite.

Unfortunately, the budget emphasizes income assistance over job training. Yet in the CETA program, the government's primary training mechanism, the President has proposed to reduce Title VI public service-employment jobs by at least one-seventh.

I contend that the tax cost to the American people will be greater if those who could once benefit from public-service jobs continue to be unemployed.

In anticipation of strong liberal and minority-group opposition to the Administration's fiscal conservatism in this area as it affects the structurally unemployed, the President has supposedly redirected more money toward the economically disadvantaged and long-term unemployed. In actuality, the President has not recommended any increases in the YEDPA program under CETA. He has decided to cut the Young Adult Conservation Corps and use the remaining supplemental 1979 summer youth programs authority to increase the youth employment and training program. The President has also recommended that 250,000 jobs be cut from the summer youth job program for fiscal year 1980.

I should also point out that the Administration has attempted to justify reductions in CETA youth employment jobs by relying on the employment tax credit enacted last year. While I am optimistic about the potential for private-sector employment initiatives, I must also emphasize the voluntary nature and broader eligibility categories of the tax credit provision. We must closely monitor the implementation of this tax credit to determine if the legislation is sufficiently targeted on needy and disadvantaged youth in this nation.

In summary, the President's 1980 budget as it relates to youth unemployment gives, at best, superficial treatment to a structural problem.

As many of you probably know, the 12th Congressional District, which I represent in New York City, is probably one of the most, if not the most, blighted urban area represented in the United States Congress. I represent a very diverse community that is predominantly black and Puerto Rican, but also includes strong Polish, Hasidic, Italian and West Indian enclaves.

Some sections of my district literally appear to be war ravaged. Once proud communities such as Bushwick, where neat, wooden, frame houses stood, have fallen victim to arson. Sections that were once bustling with manufacturing and other industries have closed down. Unemployment of young people in my district, believe me when I tell you, has risen to about 40 percent, and juvenile crime has increased accordingly.

Thus, you see why I'm so concerned. I am further concerned that the Youthwork initiatives be relevant--relevant and applicable to the problems these young people face and suited to the communities they are attempting to serve. It is important that job application sites be located strategically in the communities that are to be served. Last year I remember riots nearly occurred in my area as a result of hundreds of desperate youths converging upon sites that were not equipped to handle the heavy demand.

It is equally important that programs be coordinated with the community action groups, with schools and with churches in the area.

Another important issue is the need to emphasize the development of marketable skills rather than make-work assignments for teenagers. Inevitable, these programs do not lead in the direction of preparing the teenager with some kind of skill or some kind of marketable commodity to function in in a highly automated and technological society. We're going to have to begin to look very seriously at alternative educational modes in this great nation--the combination of education and work. In this regard, one of the most marvelous things I've seen happen recently is in a high school in Brooklyn, and I wish we could begin to consider it as a prototype. The absentee rate was 80 percent over a long period of time. It was one of the schools that were going to be closed. The students were bored; they felt that what they were learning in the school was not going to prepare them to function in the world of work.

But the situation was turned around by a far-reaching principal who got into all kinds of difficulties with the central board in New York City. He waw that there were so many houses in the area, structurally sound but houses that had been closed down, houses that needed rehabilitation. And this principal for over a year and a half got in touch with carpenters in the community and plumbers and all kinds of people and put together a program whereby these students would go to school four hours a day and work two hours a day and have some money in their pockets. At the same time they were motivated enough to have a good attendance pattern. They learned better and, actually, after graduating, went right into the world of work.

All I'm saying is that tradition is no longer the answer to the overwehlming problems that we're grappling with today.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Thank you, Congresswoman

Questions?

MS. MARTIN: The problems that the principal ran into downtown, do you think that's typical? How can we begin to deal with it?

MS. CHISOLM: I really believe that what has to be done is to visually show the results of a change in a different kind of approach to education. We have to show people that not only are the young people getting an education, but also they are acquiring a technique, a skill, a know-how mechanism. Their motivation to go to school has been increased because they know once they come out of the doors of that school they will be productive citizens and have a sense of pride.

I find more and more that you cannot talk about these things because you have a lot of theoreticians and academicians who know only textbooks and unless everything follows the textbook, then learning is so prescribed in many instances that they don't understand what you're talking about. So what you have to do is show them. You have to give them concrete examples and it's hard for those people out there who are trying to be innovative. I've seen them. I've seen some of them crack up under the pressures of central boards and what have you. It's very distressing.

MR. TARILIAN: Congresswoman, I know that when you were on the House Education Committee you fought very hard for increased federal budget for education. I think one of the statements you made at one time was that the federal outlay for education generally is less than 10 percent of total monies spent on education. How do you see that small amount of federal dollars triggering the kind of actions that need to take place?

MS. CHISOLM: The time has come for the educational world and all the training program people to really take a very good, hard, serious look at what they're doing and what has been the results in terms of the monies that they have put into certain programs; reassess, reallocate, change priorities. There's nothing wrong with knocking out certain programs and getting away from this business of automatically funding programs because it's time to refund them. If the program hasn't done the kind of job or hasn't brought about help, take that money and put it in another program that has proved to be more beneficial.

But everybody is to busy protecting his or her turf, and that's part of the problem. When are we going to be objective enough to recognize it?

MR. DELGADO: I also am very interested in what you mentioned about alternative education as a possible necessary step to focus on. What specific types of alternative education are you speaking of? Can you elaborate on that?

MS. CHISOLM: In any given community or region across this country, if you look at your local, your city or your state employment agencies, you see that there tends to be a preponderance of certain jobs that require certain skills, certain know-how. And yet, in many instances you find people are not being placed in these jobs because the manpower training programs have absolutely no relationship to the availability and accessibility of employment opportunities in that very community. The right hand doesn't know what the left hand is doing.

There is absolutely no coordination between the millions of dollars that we're putting into education and plans and programing for a future, and I think that alternative education can work in the direction of a much more active coordination between the educational institutions and the job training centers.

MR. SEILER: You've mentioned that we have turf problems out there. You've mentioned that we should have education for work in a coordinated, systematic process. My question is, how can we really deal at the local level about the disorganizational aspect? Who's in charge? Who works for whom? What are the lines of authority? Who's going to take the responsibility?

MS. CHISOLM: The Federal Government--we in the Congress--can come up with certain basic guidelines for the communities in terms of their regional and local councils, to get together and then formulate what is best for them in their region or their state. I think the Congress can take the direction by formulating some basic guidelines in response to the application for different grants for these kinds of programs.

I think the Congress has to take that kind of responsibility and establish a framework, because federal funds will be involved, and then leave it to your local mechanism--just like what we do in education.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Congresswoman, I wish you luck in terms of monitoring the jobs tax credit. It's going to be interesting. It's generating change where a lot of people don't want change.

We have with us today three people: Roger Brown, the Associate Commissioner for Special Education from the great Commonwealth of Massachusetts, and two people who have been deeply involved in the Governor's Manpower Office in the State of Wisconsin, Federico Zarazoza and Joe Davis.

Mr. Brown.

STATEMENT OF ROBERT BROWN,

ASSOCIATE COMMISSIONER FOR SPECIAL

EDUCATION, COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS

MR. BROWN: Special education has become a reality throughout Massachusetts. Current surveys note an increase of 45 percent in the numbers of students receiving specialized services, which represents 11.9 percent of the public school population. Most comprehensive school systems offer a wide range of programs, in some cases collaborating with other communities to serve students with low-incident special needs.

Vocational education, however, historically an optional and quasi-separate educational offering in Massachusetts, has been somewhat less responsive. Philosophy, training, attitude, lack of understanding of student rights and needs, and in some cases administrative intransigence, are among the deterrents to the provision of increased special education services in vocational schools.

The range of programs in vocational special education considers both the available resources and the technical educational expertise that the Commonwealth of Massachusetts currently possesses or could readily develop in responding to the service delivery needs in this educational area. Implementation of a continuum of program alternatives requires extensive joint planning between the Division of Curriculum and Instruction, the Division of Occupational Educational and the Division of Special Education of the Massachusetts Department of Education, as well as a high degree of intraagency cooperation.

With the advent of legislation requiring all schools to admit students with identified special needs, some vocational schools have accepted a disproportionately large group of those students with special needs whom they felt could be absorbed into the mainstream. Their concept of mainstream, however, differs greatly from the letter and spirit of the special-education mandates.

To be mainstreamed with success, a student should be placed in a regular program where teachers and instructors modify their service in service delivery to meet the student's particular need. But many vocational programs have interpreted mainstreaming to mean that no changes from the regular program are needed for the student. Support services are not provided to help the regular teacher-instructor modify curriculum or technique. Both teacher and student are left on their own to flounder and, far too often, to fail.

Another problem with the fact of mainstreaming as it exists in many vocational programs is the miconception that an instructor must handle all special educational needs alone in shop or laboratory. Support personnel are often provided in academic and related classes but rarely in vocational instruction. Given that vocational shop-lab instruction is actually intensely individualized in its presentation, it is of extreme importance that instructional support personnel be available to assist in the teaching-learning process. No shop instructor can be expected or required to perform educational miracles. Interpreters, aides, facilitators, an extra pair of hands--these are the delivery modifiers that make the difference between special education and little or no education at all for some students.

Vocational education has presented one of the most difficult situations that special educators have faced as well. For the most part, they are unfamiliar with the philosophy and orientation of vocational education. The jargon is different, the goals more immediate, the training of teachers dissimilar, the methods and materials unusual and the scheduling and actual class-shop work more concentrated. Vocational educators encourage these differences because they are engaged in preparing students for the realities of employment, and their programs must emphasize work attitudes and skills if students are to be job ready at graduation.

Before special educators can begin to work in a cooperative planning relationship with their vocational educators, they must be trained to work within these fundamental differences--in philosophy and orientation--between vocational programs and standard academic programs. For example, the programs that exist in most vocational schools are a combination of three elements: academic, related instruction, and actual shop or lab work. Any student who attends a vocational program will participate in all three areas. It is possible for a student with special needs to require a very complicated schedule if she or he is to receive needed support services. Given the accepted practice of scheduling alternative shop and academic weeks, it becomes difficult to plan for the dent who needs remediation or therapy on a regular, not an alternating, basis.

Any individualized educational plan must demonstrate an awareness and acceptance of the realities of the particular scheduling pattern of the target vocational program and must suggest or prescribe modifications which will be possible for both school and student.

As a result of much consultation with special and vocational educators, a diagnostic model has been developed that will serve as the basis of the development of individual educational plans in vocational special education. This diagnostic program depends on the combined expertise of a three-person team composed of a special educator, a vocational educator and an industrial-arts teacher. These people will be trained to work together and to understand each other's disciplines. They will be responsible for working with those who are developing individual educational plans in comprehensive schools, vocational schools or in private schools serving special-need students.

Regardless of location, placement or age of student, the elements of the diagnostic program will be the same. Each student will progress through a series of work stations designed to provide observable experiences that can serve as assessment situations for the diagnostic team. The exact sequence of activities will be prescribed by the team using information about the student's strengths and weaknesses.

A current-education component will exist in each center, and the diagnostic team will confer with parents on a regular basis so that the assessment tasks will be understood and accepted. The diagnostic team members will be specifically trained to work together. Each work station will be designed to provide the team with an opportunity to observe specific points that tend to indicate student's potential for skill development.

The tasks at each work station will be chosen for their level of generalization across clusters. The intent will not be to teach a job, but rather to determine vocational exploratory areas that should be prescribed for the next phase of the student's program. At the conclusion of the diagnostic period, the center team should be able to advise the evaluation team as to the specific programmatic needs of the student and, in many cases, the trade areas that should be explored by the student. Before admission to a vocational education program, a student with special needs should progress through those exploratory experiences in his career process which will allow for informed choice.

There has been much concern, both nationally and statewide, regarding services to the low-incident disability populations -- here I make particular reference to multi-handicapped individuals, profoundly deaf individuals and children with severe sight loss. Because these students constitute a small segment of the total special-needs population, and because they often have complicated special educational needs not often encountered by most districts, the potential for inappropriate educational programming is great.

When considering program development for low-incident disabilities, one must look at the whole array of regular education and special education services. No single service delivery system can effectively serve all students within a low-incident category.

Some students with low-incident disabilities require minimum special education services, while others require a totally specialized program. Some students can be effectively serviced by special programs designed for the high-incidence population with minor adaptations, while others need major adaptations.

Students with substantial special needs, and especially the low-incidence population, should be evaluated in regard to their specific development on the vocational education continuum of program services. Further, these individuals should receive the benefit of individualized educational plans that provide for educational objectives related to filling gaps in their development within the areas of vocational education.

A major consideration in providing vocational education services to the low-incident population is the provision of ancillary support services. This is particularly important for those students who could be successfully mainstreamed into regular vocational education programs.

These services include vision itinerants, hearing itinerants, occupational therapists, physical therapists and speech and language specialists. Since many of these professionals have an incomplete knowledge of vocational education, in-service training is needed for these people so that they can adapt their role to vocational skills.

To briefly summarize, I have tried to stress five points. One is the need for joint planning, both interagency and intraagency. Two, in-service training-retraining, if you will -- to make the match work, continues to be of high priority. Three is the need to build on the individualized educational plan that is now required both in 95-482, the occupational education statute, and 94-142, the special education statute.

Four is the need for specialized planning with regard to low-incidence populations.

And finally is the need to impregnate the vocational delivery system with the support services that are found now in a growing way, in greater abundance as a result of the special-education statutes, in comprehensive school systems.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Thank you very much, Mr. Brown. If I may, I'd like to ask a couple of questions now.

Could you speak to support services? What kind of things do you think are essential? What is it you really mean by support services and how do you think we can begin to combine these services?

MR. BROWN: There is a great range of essential support services. The need for the extra pair of hands, the person with very little training, but one that can help within educational programs and particularly vocational programs, I see as a supportive service. The need for extensive and expansive follow-up to handicapped youngsters who are placed on jobs and too often the sharp cuts within a budget will not allow continued or frequent enough counseling around that job-site training and around that job placement

Counseling: the need for trained counselors within vocational schools as well as comprehensive schools. Professionally trained social workers who can deal with the family and involve the family.

The other more really apparent needs for support services include the need for interpreters and the need for short-term consultants who can go in and work with teachers. Those are some examples of what we mean by supportive services.

MR. TARILIAN: Up in Massachusetts, what have they done in the small communities? You seem to have some experience up there. What do they do when they don't have a great number of people?

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: I was going to ask you something rather similar, so I think you can do both at the same time. You call it low incident, low population. It seems to me that's one of the problems we're going to have in terms of trying to do anything in terms of the CETA legislation, particularly in the rural areas.

I hate to use the term "cost effective" in any kind of negative way, but how do you pull that population together?

MR. BROWN: The way that problem has been dealt with in our state, and I think quite successfully, is through a network of educational collaboratives, which simply means that groups of three or four, or 14 and 15 communities get together for the purposes of providing services to this low-incident population.

A variety of service delivery systems have sprung up. There are a large number of so-called satellite programs that are being conducted in vacated bowling alleys, empty factory and industrial space, or school buildings that have closed down and what have you. One thing that we have learned, from the five years of our experience with Massachusetts, is that seriously handicapped children can be educated and can be educated very well within public school settings.

MS. MARTIN: Would you take just a minute to talk to us about costs and per pupil costs for good support services?

MR. BROWN: It's felt in Massachusetts that a unit of special education, if I can get by with that without defining it, is four times more expensive than a unit of regular education. When you add to that the vocational components, you increase the costs even more than that 4-to-1 ratio, depending on what type of training is offered. But it is recognized that the ratio maybe ranges be 4 to 1 and 6 to 1.

The need for the expensive programs for severely, multiply impaired youngsters, however, in Massachusetts is recognized as costing in excess of $30,000 per year per pupil for some programs. But they appear to be working. At least the children are still making some progress. They're not running and are actually going out to work in may cases.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: On the cost-benefit ratio which this board is accustomed to worrying about, that may not be so hot.

MR. DELGADO: Team approach in special education, industrial arts and vocational rehabilitation--how do you see these three areas working together, say, in an academic setting that is putting forth the individuals that are going to be having some input as to the future of the individuals that we're talking about?

MR. BROWN: The reason we are moving rapidly in that direction is that heretofore special-education people were writing educational plans prescribing vocational education programs without really any knowledge at all of how the vocational education system works. The vocational educators then received the child with a plan that they had no input into, that was written in jargon they did not understand. We determined that something had to turn that around. The vocational education people were unfamiliar with special education. The special-education people were unfamiliar with vocational education. In the middle, there are other people that I call industrial arts instructors, the home economics people, and those other kinds of folks who do have some of these skills.

We felt that during a transitional year, when the individual child was in need of and ready to enter into vocational education the best step was to have that child go for six or eight weeks to a diagnostic program, where she or he would work with this team, the vocational educator, the special educator and another person. By the way, CETA could get involved in this piece as well because they have the same mandate and responsibility for that kind of assessment.

After that assessment period, the team would be able to state more accurately--in common-sense terms that vocational-education people could understand--what that child's strengths and weaknesses were and the kind of vocational training that ought to be delivered to him. That child then could take that plan into the vocational school and it would be, in simple terms, a plan that would make more sense to the people who are expected to deliver the service to the child.

MR. SEILER: Do you think we have enough knowledge already on how to conduct that diagnostic process or do we need to develop and test some procedures?

MR. BROWN: I don't think we need to develop another test procedure. We have the knowledge. We need to do more sharing. We need to do a better job identifying where the best programs are and then replicate them. That takes money.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Let's now turn to another part of the state management, dealing with the issues of coordination under the CETA component. Mr. Zaragoza?

FEDERICO ZARAGOZA, GOVERNOR'S MANPOWER PLANNING OFFICE, MADISON, WISCONSIN

MR. ZARAGOZA: I note that the state perspective is what we are going to talk on, and, in one word, that's frustration.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: How right you are.

MR. ZARAGOZA: Interestingly enough, the lesson that I think we in Wisconsin have learned is that one of the most significant barriers for coordination is the federal government itself. As we look at coordination, look at the horizontal and vertical relationships, we see that the feds are coordinating in their own way, the states in their own way and the locals in their own way with no bridge between strategies. Everybody wants to coordinate and nobody wants to be coordinated. I think our office has a legitimate right to coordinate.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Because the law says so, right?

MR. ZARAGOZA: And that's where I want to start from. Recently we authorized the 1978 Comprehensive Employment and Training Act mandate that the State Employment and Training Council continue where the old Service Council left off. Their primary mission is coordination. It's linkages. It's to stimulate the growth of a truly comprehensive system. I would suggest that many of the problems we have heard today in terms of coordination at the state and local level can be addressed through the State Employment and Training Council.

Joe's presentation will deal with the nitty-gritty about coordination, but I want to put the carrot in front and talk about some of the things that I am very excited about.

Number one, the act provides for the 1 percent linkages. Here is an opportunity to look at the educational system and the CETA system. We have to coordinate our efforts. We have to somehow establish some direction so that the resources at the state level are somehow complementing the efforts and interests of the federal government. Certainly, there is a broad spectrum of allowable activities. In any case, in Wisconsin, we are looking at the 1 percent as somethink that is going to stimulate coordination. We plan to use a 1 percent, not independent of other categorical funding that we have. We also have demonstration projects. We are currently funding supported work projects. We are funding innovative projects, such as Project Skill. Project Skill, again, is geared toward the handicapped. Parts of the supported work effort are geared toward the handicapped.

We have a research capacity and we fund programs in the area of research. Technical assistance is another area. In addition, special needs of clients are taken into consideration. When you look at the 1 percent and the 4 percent, and you look at the flexibility involved, you realize that the states aren't in a position to really stimulate coordination. I think it becomes more important when you consider that in addition to those two sources of funding, we also have monies to link voc ed in the voc ed system and monies to try new ideas, the YETP, the youth programs. We are administering these things. We have a lot of information available. We have reports and we'd like people to read them.

Why can't the states work together? I think it's very important to consider the fact that partnerships could evolve. Conceivably you might want to set up a situation in one state where a comprehensive package is put together. We have the forums. We have the institutions link.

Finally, I want to mention that we have long recognized the need for private-sector involvement and would hope that the forum at the state levels provides you with data in terms of what can work in a specific state so that we don't fund categorical programs outside of the coordination effort. The private-sector role in Wisconsin is something we are beginning to look at as instrumental to any program whose ultimate goal is unsubsidized employment. We are hoping to invest additional funds in that area. We are interested in investing funds in terms of looking at the private sector and of facilitating its input into a planning process. We are hoping that that is compatible with what comes down thorugh the efforts of this panel.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Joe?

JOSEPH DAVIS, GOVERNOR'S MANPOWER PLANNING

OFFICE, MADISON, WISCONSIN

MR. DAVIS: I am going to talk, I hope, pretty specifically about what the state role can be as it relates to interagency coordination and linkages.

The point that I want to make regarding the state role, and particularly the business that Youthwork is in, and the funding you are going to be involved in, the programs you are going to be involved in, is that there are some lessons to be learned, and, building on what Federico said, the investing of funds, the development of categorical activities in a vacuum or on a separate track has created a nonsystem. I heard someone state this morning that the federal government could prevent people from falling through the cracks. I don't think the federal government can.

In Wisconsin we listened to practitioners at the local level. If they pointed a finger in Wisconsin, it was due east and a little south, wherever the Hill is from where we are right now.

CETA in 1973 was partly intended to be developed as a comprehensive system. Unfortunately, CETA has been looked at as a system existing parallel to the same systems that existed before CETA became operational. What we did in Wisconsin then was to take a look at the role of the Services Council (now Employment and Training Council) and found that it had dropped the ball. We were anxious to figure out what the state role could be. The roles of the states are still pretty ambiguous. We did not come from the perspective of control. In fact, that is the one thing I should mention we avoid for specific reasons, but we did note that the Council was intended to coordinate and we saw that it wasn't happening. So, in the last few months of 1977 the governor initiated a special ad hoc coordination effort aimed at that part of the employment and training system that could pretty much control, or at least have some direct access to, programs provided by state agencies.

In Wisconsin we have a postsecondary voc ed system in addition to secondary voc ed. Our postsecondary ed includes voc rehab, employment service--all the range of employment-training-related programs you can think of. A committee was established on which sat the secretaries of these line agencies. There were representatives from prime sponsors and from our community-action organizations. For four to five months, with the staff of the Governor's Manpower Planning Office meeting the staff of this ad hoc committee, this group attempted to define the problems and suggest some strategies. The process they used was first inventorying exactly what went on in the state, and that in itself was no mean feat. What we finally came out with, depending upon where you put such things as unemployment compensation and various other sources of funds, was the identification of between $5 million and $750 million of non-CETA employment training funds, and that's probably apart from local tax levy resources in secondary voc ed and postsecondary voc ed, which are hidden. We analyzed delivery systems. We used contact people in the specific agencies and we got a significant amount of input form local practitioners, including prime sponsors.

Let me add that the ad hoc effort was specifically related to state agencies. We avoided the CETA network at first, hoping to bite off a manageable piece--get the statehouse in order--then come back to the Services Council, then come back to the primes and get the whole act together.

The recommendation the ad hoc committee finally agreed to was called incremental coordination, with an emphasis on incremental. It was based on a number of assumptions. The assumption that coordination does occur, that there are successes, and oftentimes the state doesn't know about it; oftentimes it's done in opposition to state barriers, and certainly in opposition to federal barriers. We wanted to build on successes, that there were forums out there. People were really getting together, surprisingly enough. What we wanted to do then was concentrate on developing an outline, a structure within which people coordination could begin, program coordination. We thought that before we could get to that, before we could get to the actual activity linkages, we had to get the process. We had to get to some systems, to some communications, that hated word turfism, competition for bodies, placement quotas--all those ugly little things that everybody is forces to do. This process building relied on lead agencies. We first broke down an ideal delivery system into access and entry, assessment, outreach, recruitment, etc., getting into a "system." Then we had employability training and support services in the middle. The back end was placement, unsubsidized employment, economic development, whatever. For each component, we designated a lead agency. The Governor's Manpower Planning Office was the chief coordinator. For the front end of it we had an agency in Wisconsin that coordinates community action agencies, Local Affairs and Development. In the middle we have our postsecondary voc ed system, and we had our Department of Health and Social Services, with the assistance of our K thourgh 12 system, the Department of Public Instruction. At the back end we had the employment services. These lead agencies were not and are not to be confused with delivery of service. They are not presumptive deliverers. They were presumptive facilitators, presumptive coordinators. They would do what had to be done to assist the locals.

We intended to have practitioners, deliverers, get together periodically, identify problems, identify barriers, identify successes, and decide what they could work on together to overcome, what they needed from the state in order to make it possible for them to coordinate, because as much as the federal government, we see the state government as partner in the barriers to coordination.

The upshot of it is what we call local cooperative agreements where the deliverers would agree not to serve five bodies here or ten bodies here and do that in any degree of coordination. Frankly we wanted to proceed slowly and this local cooperative agreement was simply to obtain that commitment to continue to work on the very difficult problems that everybody recognizes.

MR. CONWAY: Excuse me. I am having a hard time staying totally in touch with how this works locally. Youthwork has about, I think, $750,000 worth of money in two projects in Milwaukee, and it would be helpful for me to understand this whole systems thing you're laying out as it related to specific applications that we have funded, and what you and the state office are doing to monitor those projects and what you'll be telling us nine months from now was done with the $750,000.

MR. DAVIS: Okay. The way we're intending to get at the local deliverers is, first, incentives with our special grants. Local people have identified problems at the local level and in the proposal process for our special grants, 4 percent, 5 percent youth, we have requested and solicited projects that would meet those needs.

What we did to get this incremental coordination off the ground is set up around the state a series of public hearings in which we invited practitioners to give testimony, and it was very successful. It's not so much we found things that were new or earth-shaking. What did happen, though, is that we began to get that trust from the local to the state level. We were told--well, after X number of years, "you've finally come out of Madison, and here you are listening to us," and that meant a lot. We did get their perspectives, and we intend to use those local perspectives to develop coordination strategies.

I just want to list some of the problems that were identified at the local level. They pointed out that agencies and programs usually have a suspicion about the impact of a budgetary numbers game, placing quotas and performance standards . . . there are conflicts among programs between meeting the needs of individuals and meeting the needs of the program . . . the employment and training of the so-called system is fragmented into discrete programs with independent and conflicting regulations . . . agencies plan from narrow perspectives . . . agencies have overlapping roles and responsibilities, and they do all things for all people . . . the state needs to take a more active role in assisting the improvement of coordination.

We also requested recommendations. These included such things as joint participatory planning at the state and local levels . . . increased involvment of private employers . . . mechanisms for the timely sharing of plans. These are all basic things that are simply not done, and, frankly, CETA has not done very much to make them be done. There is a need for: standard statewide techniques for assessing the employment and training needs of individual, employers, and communities . . . a common data base . . . improved occupational labor market information. Going on to procedures: periodic forums at the state and local level . . . common eligibility requirements and common definitions of terms . . . expanded and coordinated post-placement follow-up with individuals. Regarding staff, such things as co-location of staff, zoning patterns statewide for the deployment of staff--for example, Outreach workers in DVR. I'm sure there are pockets of the state in Wisconsin where there are more Outreach workers than people.

What basically struck me about the relevance of our ad hoc effort for youth employment in general is that the problems are the same, and if you are considering programs in the specific segment of the population, the fact is that there are gencies out there, there are prime sponsors out there, there are a host of delivery systems out there that are doing pieces of what you want to be done. I would just recommend using states in a constructive way to try to build up that comprehensive system without putting yet another piece on the crossword puzzle.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Any questions?

MS. HIGGINS: One of the points that was made was that the federal government is the major obstacle to coordination. I was just curious as to the things you have accomplished, how much of that you have accomplished within existing laws and regulations, and how much is really not doable because of federal obstacles?

MR. DAVIS: There is an awful lot that's not doable, frankly. What we found was that we had to take reality and work from there. It's such basic things as specific programs--in our case specific state agencies--being all things for all people. Everybody assesses; everybody has an employability development plan. We had a case study--a true story--about a 20-year-old woman with a 5-year-old kid. By the time you get through the three pages, she has had at least six personal interviews, five assessments, four employability development plans. She has been to voc rehab, she has been everywhere. At the end she is nowhere.

MR. CONWAY: Mr. Brown, the board of Youthwork is going to be evaluating at some point, God knows how many proposals, and I am curious as to what advice you would give us, given your perspective, of what we should be looking to accomplish with that money?

MR. BROWN: I guess there are three things you ought to look for. One, you ought to convince yourself that thorough planning has taken place, and it just isn't one person's idea or a small group of people getting together with an interesting notion. A second piece is that it should be tied firmly to business and industry in terms of the employment market within that respective geography. Third, it should utilize existing resources in a different way as opposed to building some new kind of system. The reason I feel that is important is that you don't want the program to go away after the funds have gone away, which is often the case.

MR. CONWAY: Just to follow-up on the last point; you know, Youthwork's field staff go out to negotiate a contract and they're looking for those criteria you just gave. They come and sit down with you and say, "Is there a systemic commitment to this post-Youthwork money?" You're going to say yes, while you're trying to get your grant. The question is, what can the staff do to push you on that?

MR. BROWN: There are some pieces that might show in planning. For example, you're going to make available a source of dollars. To what extent will those proposals speak to the notion of tying those dollars together or of following up wtih sources of educational dollars, for example? I think the people who do a thorough job of planning can carefully think through maybe getting a program started with this new money but committing some other federal dollars for a second or third year of whatever.

MS. MOSLEY: Mr. Davis, the concept of the system plan that you talked about is kind of hard to follow. Is it written some place that you may have access to it?

MR. DAVIS: Yes. As a matter of fact, Bob Eckert of Youthwork has it, and it will certainly be available.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: For the rest of the day we will focus on what is perhaps the most important part of what we hope to learn today. And that is, what needs to happen at the local level? To start this off, we will have . . .

JUDY HEUMANN, DIRECTOR, CENTER FOR

INDEPENDENT LIVING, BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA

MS. HEUMANN: What I would like to basically do is give you some information on what I believe you ought to be doing with the money that you are going to be getting.

I work at a program called the Center for Independent Living in Berkeley, California, which is a support-services program for persons who are physically disabled--blind, deaf, elderly--and most recently we are beginning to provide services to persons who are disabled and also substance abusers who would be defined as multiple disabled. I have been disabled myself since I was a year and a half, when I had polio, and have been through the system. I was in home instruction for four years because the local principal informed my mother that I was a fire hazard and couldn't go to the local school. I was then the first post-polio integrated into a segregated program for disabled kids. I was the first to graduate from special education in that program, which gives you some information about the caliber of education in the program. I was then bused to high school in my community where I was theoretically integrated, but because it wasn't in my neighborhood I was socially isolated. I went to college and had some problems in college. When I graduated college, I decided I wanted to be a teacher, had to sue the Board of Education in New York to get my teaching credentials because as a disabled person I was medically denied my rights. I taught for three years, and I taught one year disabled children, K through eight, and I also worked at camp for disabled persons.

Children who are born disabled or who become disabled in their youth face major problems when trying to enter the employment market. These children frequently have poor images of themselves and little expectation that they will grow up to be productive individuals, a view too frequently shared by their family. Many of these children either go to segregated camps and therefore are maintained in a segregated environment.

Most disabled children do not see disabled adults in professional capacities. Their doctors, nurses, therapists, social workers, teachers, bus drivers, etc., are not disabled. There are few persons that disabled youth are able to emulate.

I'll briefly explain the services we have developed, which we still consider to be minimal. We help disabled individuals find people to come into their homes, get them up, do cleaning and shopping, help people go to bed at night, drive cars if they can't themselves, find readers for the blind, interpreters for the deaf, help people find places to live. We give them referrals of housing, and we work with community real estate people to try to determine whether housing can be made accessible. We have a very minimal transportation program that does door-to-door service for disabled individuals. We also sue our local transit authority, which is not running an accessible transportation program. We have a conseling program, which is very important. It is peer oriented. We provide individual and group counseling, public counseling, family counseling, medical counseling, independent living skills counseling, and drug and alcohol counseling. We repair wheelchairs. We repair vehicles. We help modify vans and cars.

We have blind services and deaf services that have their own peer counseling programs, mobility instruction. We have a job development program that works with people who are job ready.

We have a law program, which we have found to be incredibly important. We have five attorneys on staff now so that we can start getting into doing some litigation of employment, housing, education, transportation, and so forth.

Overall, it would be fair to say that our goal is to make disabled individuals independent. We don't believe it is necessary to do things by yourself to be independent, but rather to know what your needs are and be able to have access to what you need.

We work with persons in institutions and persons who want to move out from their families but have not had the wherewithal to do that. We believe it is important to take a holistic approach to the needs of disabled individuals, and we also believe that the services need to be on a continuum. I personally will always need attendant care services. It is inappropriate to say that because I am disabled and I have my degrees and I have gone out and got a job that I am not going to need attendant referral. So, our clients close themselves out when they believe they have reached a point where they don't need a service any more; they can enter the system without a lot of paperwork.

I believe that when you are getting into designing a rehabilitation program it is important, given the fact that you have limited money, to look at people who are severely disabled, people who have been inappropriately served--or unserved--by the school system and the Department of Rehabilitation, people who have been cast off by the non-disabled population as being unable to be productive. It is very important, I think, that these individuals be given an opportunity to explore the job market and to make decisions about what they want to do when going out to work. And those decisions should be based on what they want to do, not on what professionals say is realistic for them.

I think one of the things that also needs to be looked at is the barriers that prohibit disabled individuals from being able to successfully seek employment and from being able to successfully maintain employment. Obviously, that goes back to the issue of the services that I have been talking about: interpreters, transportation, assess.

When you are talking about a severely disabled individual on a job, there are a number of things that need to be looked at. One is that the place is going to be physically accessible for those persons who have mobility problems. For example, there is no accessible bathroom in this building, so I have not been able to go to the bathroom for the last hour and a half. If I were working here, that would be a major problem

It is important to make sure that interpreters are provided to people who are deaf, that readers are provided to people who are blind, that transportation issues are looked into to ensure that a person can get to and from the job, that job restructuring can be done in order to take into consideration some of the particular needs--the number of hours that a person can actually work--and that adequate counseling is provided.

There is a program that is on the drawing board out in Oakland-Berkeley. Children's Hospital in Oakland came to us wanting to design a program for disabled youth, with one of the goals being employment. What we have is a proposal that would allow severely disabled individuals to be identified, to utilize the services that exist at the center and at Children's Hospital, and to combine those services so that there will be significant emphasis on role-modeling after disabled individuals--adults and teenagers--who have been successful, not necessarily in the traditional way, but in that they have been able to begin to get their independent living skills together, to work with other people in overcoming their major problems and with families to enable them to perceive that the child is going to a) grow up and b) be able to be a productive individual.

The project, I think, if it is funded, is something that you probably will really be interested in. It seems to be a model; something like you have been talking about where we are talking about coordinating with different programs in the community, talking about working with severely disabled individuals and talking about an employment goal. That is one of the things that need to be looked at.

Some of the things that you need to look at are, one, when you are developing your Youthwork applications guidelines, it needs to be made very clear that there are certain things that you want. For example, you want to see that the program was significantly developed by disabled individuals. Not that it is a program that some community could get money from and therefore has decided that disability is the "in" thing this week but there is no input from disabled individuals.

Two, it should clearly show that there is an intent to hire disabled individuals, that when money is brought on for jobs, if it is to work with disabled people, that disabled people should be employed in those programs.

Three, that meaningful work experience is going to be able to be developed for the disabled youth and that the disabled youth are themselves going to be involved in the determination of the job experiences that they are going to be going on.

It is very important that disabled youth, like non-disabled youth, need to know that they are not always going to succeed. And one of the things that I really perceive as being important when helping youth be able to go out and get job experience is to let them see what they do and don't like and that it shouldn't be perceived as a failure if one doesn't like what one is doing, as long as one is doing as best as one can do. And I think in the area of disability there is much too much emphasis placed on selecting the perfect job at the age 15, 16 or 17.

But there are certain jobs that have been earmarked. Health professions, for instance, an incredible place for disabled people to be working, not only in hospitals but in the community. I think that it is very important the program try to be multi-disciplinary--or multi-agency would be a better approach.

Parents must be involved. There is a real feeling within the disabled community that parents are one of the biggest barriers to disabled children. And I think in all fairness that is not their fault. Disabled parents are basically non-disabled individuals who have grown up in a society that has told them that to be disabled is to be bad; therefore, when they have one of them in their own family, it is a real problem. And parents need to be able to deal with the real problems that exist on a day-to-day basis to allow them to take on a role that I think they want to take on, which is one of being supportive and allowing the child to grow up and be an equal within the society.

An issue that you need to deal with is that of pay. Severely disabled persons who are receiving benefits from the federal government are greatly restricted in the amount of money they can earn. That is, their salary might throw them off their benefits. And the way the program currently goes, they will not be able to get back on their benefits unless they're blind. With youth, that is a real problem. You need disabled people reviewing your grant proposals. If you don't, in my opinion, you will have problems in where the money is going to be given ou.

I think you also need to take into consideration that if you are going to be getting some disabled groups to apply for some of this money they might need some assistance in writing grant proposals. They don't have large staffs of highly paid professionals writing grant proposals. Sometimes that makes you not get the grant proposal, even though your idea is very good.

In conclusion, I would just like to thank you for the opportunity to speak to you and to ensure that the disabled youth of today will be the leaders of tomorrow.

MR. CONWAY: I think that it is really a pleasure to meet you. The organization I work for out in the western office in San Francisco has heard for a long time about your work and has done some work with the committee in Berkeley and given assistance. So, it is a pleasure for me.

I think there is one thing that we ought to take into consideration in terms of Youthwork. We have a system that I think has one of the strongest aspects of Youthwork called the Associates, where people in local areas around the country assist us to learn what is real and what is not real and inject little more reality into our process that might otherwise be the case. I would hope that the staff of Youthwork would strongly consider taking your suggestions and recommendations of people who might review the proposals. One step further in terms of formality, with the possibility of adding some poeple that you and others might recommend to our core groupof Associates who would formally review proposals and assist us even further in terms of site visits to them to assure some of the criteria that you mentioned are incorporated into all of the things we do.

MS. MARTIN: I would just like to express my not thanks for your coming, and I enjoyed your testimony.

A lot of what we do is going to be on paper. What should we be looking for to determine that there was significant input in the development of a proposal by disabled people and that various other kinds of concerns that you raised appear?

MS. HEUMANN: First of all, I would ask a good question, and I would ask it in a way that they would have to write it down on paper who it was they worked with and the disabilities people had. That, at least, gives you some ability to call people on the phone and find out how much involvement did they actually had. And the other thing is difficult to express, but there is a certain flavor that is going to come out in the development of the program if the program has been designed with significant input from disabled individuals. For example, a program that is exclusively employment oriented, without any other support systems around it, would be less likely to have had significant input from disabled people. It would be one ofthe things I would look at.

MS. HIGGINS: Judy, it seems that the kinds of services you are talking about could be fairly expensive. I am wondering whether, in this kind of competition, there is sufficient money out there that could be brought to bear on this kind of problem, with some of this money being used as a sort of leverage and cross-fertilizing of all the resources that are out there, or is there really a lack of resources at the local level?

MS. HEUMANN: I think it is a combination. One of the things that needs to be done is that when, for example, prime sponsors of CETA are distributing their funds, they ought to be determining whether or not they are giving money out to clients. In other words, when CETA is giving money out to programs and communities, do those programs meet current 503 and 504 federally mandated requirements? If money were to be distributed in a legal manner, a lot of the barriers that exist as far as employment, per se, are concerned, would be removed.

I think there are a number of ways that people can begin to remove the barriers around disability if, in fact, there were a commitment to doing that. One of the things that could be developed when requesting proposals is to see how much breadth and imagination is utilized, how much in contact have they been with the local program sponsor, how much communication has been going on with the local city and county government, is there any thought to working with foundations, is there any connection with various state agencies who, in fact, have access to a) giving money for removal of various kinds of barriers; and b) enforcing what they are supposed to be doing. Also, I think we should start dealing with cost effectiveness by not looking at the dollars that initially have to go in, but rather at the amount of money that comes out in the form of taxes paid by disabled people who have been given the chance to become productive workers.

MR. DELGADO: You mentioned earlier about service from a holistic perspective. Could you elaborate on that?

MS. HEUMANN. We try to develop services that disabled individuals need in order to be as independent as possible in their community. We look at a disabled person and say. What are your needs? And we start with the morning: Are you going to be able to get up this morning? If the answer is no, and the reason I can't get up is there is no one there to help me up, then we will help you find someone who can come in and help you get up. You are going to hire that person yourself, and you are going to pay that person yourself; but we will help you find someone. Then you are going to more on during your day, and there are going to be all kinds of issues that might arise.

You might really be at a point in time in your life when it is very important for you to develop your own ego, to be able to believe in yourself. So, it's important for you to be able to have contact with other disabled individuals. So, you can come to the center and be involved in a counseling program or either in a group counseling situation or an individual counseling situation.

We also work a lot with the community. Our goal is integration. We do what we can with community programs to get them to understand that disabled individuals have a right to utilize existing services in the community.

We try to explain to people and work with agencies opening up their doors so that disabled people can be integrated into other programs.

We are going to have disabled people running for elected office. Disabled people are in our community a powerful force because there are many of us, and we have money. We are becoming a political force, and that is something that is long overdue. And so, our holistic approach is to ensure that disabled individuals have access to everything.

MR. DELGADO: You mentioned, earlier in your statement, frustration. Do you find in your dealings with disabled individuals that the higher the degree of frustration, psychological distress, that you will find a relationship between the addictive substances--alcohol and drugs?

MS. HEUMANN: People who are disabled and are then becoming alcoholics and drug addicts, there are a number of reasons why that is occurring. The little information that we have thus far been able to gather is in part showing that it is the medical profession that is in part the cause of addiction. By that I mean doctors who are non-disabled, by and large, have been trained that to be successful one must be "normal." One is "normal" when one is walking, hearing, seeing, doing all of these things that "normal" people do. But disabled people are . . . disabled, and doctors are having problems with this. Someone will come in with a legitimate problem of pain, but instead of dealing with pain clinics and different ways to work on pain, they are giving medication.

We had a doctor about a year ago come to us who was head of a rehabilitation service in a hospital, who was saying that he knew that his doctors were overprescribing, and he didn't know what to do about it. He also knew that disabled people knew how to operate the system--knew the doctors in the community who will give you what you want, as much as you want. And you also know that you can check yourself into a hospital every year and get filled up with whatever it is you need.

Another problem is that most of the substance abuse programs will not serve multiply disabled individuals, either because the programs are physically not accessible themselves or because of the basic attitudes of the program administrators. We are working with drug and alcohol programs, trying to make them recognize that multiple disabled people should not have to go into a program just for the disabled.

MR. SEILER: Suppose I was an agency and never did a program regarding the handicapped, but I had an idea for a program. Should I be able to apply for a grant, as opposed to an agency that has been in the community, operating such programs?

MS. HEUMANN: I wouldn't give you the money. You could apply, but I wouldn't give you the money. I think that when you are, in fact, going to be working with a limited amount of money for a limited amount of time that you want to have as much impact as possible. You need to have as many people involved from the beginning who understand the issues. If you have to educate people about disability issues because a great, great majority of people involved in the program don't know anything about disability, then I think you are wasting your money.

One of the things that I would look at would be things like what you could ask, having served disabled individuals before. What do you define as a disabled person? What kind of services have you provided? Waht experience have you had? Do you have a board of directors? How many disabled people are on your board? Where are their disabilities varying? What are their disabilities? Back problems----

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Why is that----

MS. HEUMANN: Well, back problems are certainly a disability sometimes.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: In terms of board members.

MS HEUMANN: Well, the board is the policymaking body. What I was going to say is back problems, and by that I mean that you can ask how many people on your board are disabled, and I can say four, five, ten. If you are not asking the kind of disability that a person has, you will frequently find out that all of a sudden the person has developed this disability in order to meet the form, but they never were disabled before.

MS. MARTIN: To what extent do you believe the prime sponsor in your area knows about handicapped people?

MS. HEUMANN: I would say that the prime sponsor in my community is learning a lot. The prime sponsor had to send someone to our place to certify people because the place that you had to go for certification was inaccessible. They don't have interpreters around for people who are deaf. I think there is also a lack of information on disability by the certifiers. I know that CETA and Berkeley have still held meetings that have been inaccessible to us because they have been held in a place where there are only stairs. Interpreters haven't been provided at public meetings around CETA money. I think also that CETA basically needs a lot of education about disability--CETA prime sponsors.

There have been statistics on disabled people who, in fact, are being served by CETA, and I think a lot of us question those statistics. Does that answer your question?

MS. SHIELDS: Judy, has your group worked with the school system or groups similar to yours? And could you give us any indication of the kind of success?

MS. HEUMANN: We have, since September, gotten a grant from HEW's Bureau of Education for the Handicapped. And we are now working for the first year of the grant with the Berkeley School District. Basically, the program is designed to, one, work with professionals and parents and disabled and non-disabled kids to allow them to know more about disability. The instruction will be done mostly by disabled individuals and parents so that the role-modeling will go on from the outset. We have been involved in Berkeley and Oakland on selection committees for a superintendent, and we have been involved in parent advisory committees. We have been involved in working with parents around individual educational plans, or the plan that the kids get developed in the schools. We have been involved in helping file complaints and would like to get a lot more involved in the whole educational system. Essentially, there are no disabled professionals in the Berkeley and Oakland school systems. You will have one or two, but nothing to speak of.

MR. SANTANA: Within the handicapped population you have the blind, the deaf, mentally disabled, retarded. Which group do you think is less served?

MS. HEUMANN: I couldn't give you an answer on the least served by category of disability. I would say the non-white disabled child is the least served. I would also say that it would depend on the severity of the disability, so that the more physically dependent one would be, I would assume, the fewer services would be available.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: You said you recommended that, as we develop guidelines for these proposals, one of the things we would need to do--and I would agree with you--is to have a definition of "severely disabled." What would your definition be?

MS. HEUMANN: A disability that limits one or more life activities. A person who is having difficulty making it right now. There is some difficulty in answering your question because a person can be severely disabled but on a medical chart wouldn't be listed as such. By that I mean the disability has so overwhelmed them that they are not able to function.

Programmatically, I think it isn't as important to say that a person must have one or more and more blah, blah, blah. I think some of it really needs to be taken on good faith. That's maybe wrong to say.

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CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Let me explain two or three things about what I think we're going to have to face as the Youthwork board and as the Department of Labor, and they are not necessarily pleasant, but they are realities, at least in the world today. I would hope that as we try to use this Youthwork money to find the answers, that we walk the kind of fine line in terms of these projects that if we do need to develop unique kinds of programs for the mentally retarded that are different from programs for quadriplegics and other kinds of people who are severely disabled, that we at the front end in terms of those application guidelines are able to delineate different kinds of things so that we are able to work with them and develop decent kinds of projects. I am still, quite frankly, as one board member, troubled. I don't know how to go back out of here and translate what we've all learned into a set of guidelines that are going to be cogent and coherent, and let me add my other delemma. It's one of my biases that I think we need to be linking monies, because Youthwork monies are demonstration monies. It goes away. It's one of the great sins of national R&D monies, and as long as I work with Youthwork I don't want to perpetuate the sins of old R&D projects, where nothing ever happens after the R&D. So, I am concerned about how we develop and link that kind of money. We've heard people from Wisconsin talk about there's money out there. How do we make it work together?

Now, putting those pieces together, how would you help us design something so that we know what it is we're learning?

MS. HEUMANN: First of all, I ideally but not necessarily would like a program that doesn't just deal with one category of disabilities.

The needs of many disabled individuals, although we have different labels, are basically similar, and when you have to go out and start working with employers, you have to deal with issues of categorical discrimination, so you need to be working in a way where you can start removing discrimination barriers. There are certain supportive services that different disabilities need, but those can be developed in the program.

Also, the program model should aim at working with existing programs in the community so that if a specific disabled individual has a specific area of need that person can work in conjunction with a relevant program and not have it to be specially created in this small grant.

The issue of severely disabled is something that needs to be carefully worded. I mean, it needs to be worded in such a way that you really take into consideration the needs of the individual. You need to have a staff that is really sensitive to what needs are and what solutions are to determine whom you're going to allow into a program. You can't say, "All persons with cerebral palsy are severely disabled and should benefit from the program." In fact that might be true, but, given numbers of people, it would be better to have a cross-section of disabilities.

MS. HIGGINS: How much of that program emphasis should be on changing employer attitude?

MS. HEUMANN: It has to go hand in hand. One of the reasons you can't just look at a goal of employment for the disabled person in isolation is that you're going to have to work with the employers in the community, get them to believe in the fact that disabled people are competent and qualified workers. If there isn't a strong linkage within the proposal to work with employers, they don't know what they're doing.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: This has been interesting; however, we have two more sets of people to talk. Thank you very much, Judy.

Steven Ickes and David Abramowitz.

STEVEN ICKES, DIRECTOR, CETA MANPOWER

PROGRAM, LANE COUNTY, OREGON

MR. ICKES: If David and I could have your attention for the next few minutes, we would like to share our experience with the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act and its currently dormant potential as a youth special-needs education and work vehicle, and our observations about what kinds of options might work in the late '70s and early '80s.

While Congress has significantly altered the focus of CETA, posturing it to direct its policies and funds toward the most disadvantaged and lessening its impact on recession-related issues, it has struck a re-emphasized training course, and is attempting to involve the private sector in a new way through the private-sector initiative program. If the CETA program is to become increasingly helpful to special-needs youth, a series of observations about CETA and how it really works are in order.

I would like to share six observations, if I can. First, CETA policy and administration are essentially a local-federal blend. Major policy directions are set here in Washington, and local jurisdictions finish the design and implement within performance standards and their local political reality. If Youthwork is interested in increasing the resources to special-needs youth through influencing this policy process, there are two main local targets that must be touched. The first is the prime sponsor's professional staff work, the activities around the planning process, the application work and contracting process, and, finally, the functioning of its advisory board. Each local prime sponsor has a different mix of these elements. The development and status of these systems should be watched carefully as a stability indicator of the prime's ability to deliver quality work to you.

The other target is the local political process, or consortium officials' openness to ideas and, of course, the unique mix and stability of the staff and officials' interaction. I hope the board will watch this very carefully as it begins to look at the sub-granting process.

Second, CETA funds are declining, as Shirley Chisolm said earlier today. So youth special-needs issues are being raised in a clear context of declining resources.

The third point is the fact that we are in the Year of the Child and the afterglow of Public Law 94-142, but that this is not going to mean much in terms of the total unmet need, even with the addition of CETA resources income. We must set realistic expectations about what we attempt to do. The challenge to me in my professional life, I guess, as a young Irish dreamer, has been how to sustain those dreams, and yet on a daily administrative level focus and bite off manageable pieces of reality.

Four, CETA can be helpful, but increased services to special-needs youth will require new cooperative partnerships and agreements at the local, state and federal level. Now, you've heard that one. This partnership will need to involve packaging and assigning of administrative and grants and loan ideas aimed at systems innovation, another one of my pet projects, and another thing that you've heard about all day.

That leads to the fifth point. It's the one thing that got my dander up during the day--about system innovations. Our perceptions about the concept of innovation can be a curse or they can be a real step forward. If it's used to fill up people's time and capture their energies, that's a mistake. Seen as a holding pattern until a fresh wave of hope comes along is a second mistake. If's approached as an opportunity to redesign the base, it will be time well spent. Now, we've heard about systems innovation all day, but we haven't talked about the base, and the base is the issue. Financial and nonfinancial agreements are not the end. They're the beginning of the metamorphosis process. What we have is one series of federal manpower programs overlayed on the top of others, and on top of others, and on top of others, and incremental coordination agreements, and financial and non-financial agreements, I want to say, are aggressive and a major step forward in trying to unravel that, but it's not the end. Innovation with cooperative agreements viewed as the end at the federal, state and local level is a waste of time, and I want to be real clear about that.

The sixth and last thing I wanted to say I hope isn't misunderstood, but let's not repeat the activities of the 1960s and early '70s that didn't work and try to capitalize on the dimensions of those activities that did work. Here are just four ideas, and there's thousands of them, that I hope the board, Youthwork, private foundations, DOL, HEW, will remember: a) let's not try to do too much; b) in public-policy innovation we have a fixed amount of time to act and to gather momentum, approximately a year and a half as I see it, so let's get going; c) we're facing declining resources at the local level with inflation, and what I guess has been coined tax-cut fever. So, what Youthwork puts in place--people have played with during the day, but let me say it right straight out--so that what Youthwork puts in place must be self-sustaining for the most part, and I hope that's one of the things the group remembers as they approach the RFP process. We must not take the road that emphasizes rhetoric, another lesson I learned painfully. We must network; we must plan together; and we must act, and not be swayed from realistic priorities.

In concluding, I would like to describe five areas I hope you will target to, as we say our West, get the biggest bang for your buck:

One, get two or three high-potential local sites and give them enough money to ferment as complete a system as could become self-sustaining, involving in-school and out-of-school handicapped youth, the public school system, CETA and the private sector.

Two, pick two different local sites. Focus the first site on education and attitude change with public school administrators, teachers, students, disabled and not disabled, and parents of disabled and nondisabled children.

Three, pick a state system and test a state's ability to stimulate a local statewide special-needs action strategy through financial and nonfinancial agreements, and make it perfectly clear that it's not the end.

Four, fund some targeted technical research to continue to focus our knowledge about structured employment, production supervision, non-work-related employment barriers, job-analysis efforts aimed at current and future job opportunities, work-environment normalization, sequence task learning, supported work, and graduated stress.

The last one is the most important. Equip a national clearninghouse with a staff and a capacity to do technology transfer and give it a realistic five-year budget with a strict mandate to focus on the handicapped, and don't let anybody sway you off that.

The Lane County prime sponsor has acquired enough experience to bring us to conclude that special-needs youth can profit from education and work strategies and that they can deliver--and this is again a technical one--a sustained productive capacity in a competitive labor market.

Mr. Abramowitz will now share some of our specific insights and program activities. His experience on a daily basis as a special-needs youth counselor uniquely qualifies his as a professional and expert witness.

DAVID ABRAMOWITZ, SPECIAL-NEEDS CONSELOR,

MANPOWER PROGRAM, LANE COUNTY, OREGON

MR. ABRAMOWITZ: I have a unique position in that I am the only counselor who works with special-needs youth in Eugene through the CETA program, and I think a year ago we started with my position. Since that time I have initiated a few programs in Eugene, and it's required the cooperation of the existing agencies, voc rehab, school district, mental health, and different private nonprofit agencies that work with disabled. I'd like to talk about transition, school to community. I'd like to talk about interagency cooperation, and I'd like to talk about education, mostly attitude changing.

Within this information that was gathered today, people used terms freely, handicapped and disabled, and when Judy gave her talk she didn't mention handicapped once, and some distinctions need to be made, some consciousness-raising, even among the panel here as far as the topic we're discussing is concerned. It's hard for able people to really gather what the needs are of a disabled person. I think a lot of people's intentions are good, but they just don't know how to do it and they would like some resources on how to go about doing that.

In Eugene we started a program a year ago with the University of Oregon. Using money through the CETA Title II Knowledge Development, we took ten moderately aged 16 to 21 retarded youth from the public schools. We developed ten jobs for them in the community, and we took ten students from the general population and trained them as trainers to work with the disabled youth. Now, what that provided was the 1-to-1 supervision that these youths needed. It also provided a social model. It also provided supervision that--let's say an employer would say, "I would like to take a kid on, but I don't have the time to supervise. I'm not a vocational trainer. I can't help you." Well, we took away that excuse by providing the on-site person to provide that supervision. What CETA dollars were able to do in a work experience was open up a lot of doors that wouldn't open before, which showed to someone who is disabled that he is very capable. A lot of times all an employer will see is the disability. He never has a chance to see the person's capabilities. With a subsidized work experience, that opportunity is provided.

Our program did not end in August of '78. What happened was, with the knowledge development and with the continuation of my position, we reached out into the school systems, and we sat in on those IEP meetings--that is, the individual educational plans that are mandated by Public Law 94-142. It was a team approach in the idea that the teacher was there, the student was there, the parent was there, someone from Lane County Mental Health was there, I was there from CETA, and we also had a vocational rehab counselor. We talked about the educational plan for that student. We talked about housing and living situation after school. We talked about vocational development in school and a half-a-day work experience in their last two years in school. We talked about the types of specialized recreation that would be available. We all signed to it, and we're working on those program.

In CETA I have to fill out an employability development plan. My employability development plan ties into their individual educational plan, transition from school into community, into unsubsidized employment, and with those contacts, with that team effort, with that interagency contact in communication, we are able to do that.

In CETA we have three main components. One is the work experience, one is on-the-job training, and one is classroom training. The work experience provides the opportunity not to program that person for one specific job, but to develop positive, basic work habits, like getting to work on time, being punctual, cleanliness, ability to get along with others. What we find is that when you've had kids in special ed classes for most of their academic life, they've learned how different they are; they haven't learned how to interact with the general population. The work experience serves as a transition period to give them the opportunity to develop those kinds of skills that will present them as independent and socially invisible as well.

I have the freedom through employment and training at Lane County to write a plan for 18 months, and I might put someone through three or four work experiences to see what their interests are, use it as an on-sight assessment tool, and also to give them the time that they need to feel what it's like to be in the community, earning some money, handling their money and doing social activities, interacting with their co-workers. Then, on the basis of their capabilities and interest, we match them to an on-job training that allows them to go into the private sector. With an OJT we will look at the data that's available in the community as to what types of jobs will be available in the next ten years, and go out and negotiate within the private sector to develop an OJT and we can go six months on that, in which the client has the opportunity to learn a skill and the employer has the opportunity to see if this is someone he indeed would like to hire.

I have contacts with voc rehab in which they make their direct referrals to me and we will sit down and staff their client. Voc rehab can provide certain things. We can provide certain things. A typical example is a kid whom I have in a wheelchair. I can't buy him an electric wheelchair, but voc rehab can. They have provided that and they have provided transportation for him, which is a problem and I provided the work experience and the OJT, which will follow, and then into unsubsidized employment with our job developers. One agency can't do it all. We need all the assistance we can get. We work with people with special needs. You have to do a lot of different special kinds of things.

I work in the schools a lot. I used to be a teacher, junior high school level with mildly retarded, and then I became a vocational counselor. I saw what was lacking in the schools, how confining they can be, how limiting they can be. We, as special-education teachers, had to simulate daily living skills, banking skills, and teach sort of survival skills, but it was simulated. We didn't have any real base to show it on. It was a real problem. With a work experience through CETA it's a real situation. It's real-life kinds of things and we can take the job, take some of the abilities of the kids who need to learn, and give that information to the teachers and they can build that into their curriculum. That's another link between the community and schools.

Another thing we do in our co-worker concept is provide work experience for high school students who want to work with the handicapped, and we've provided a training program for them in which we talk about attitudes; we talk about characteristics of the different exceptionalities; we talk about some of the training procedures they could use.

When we go into the high schools and we educate the general population about the special needs of the kids that are being mainstreamed, we see some attitude changes. We see the kids become the advocates for the special-needs students, and that's real important. I think education of your general population will break down some of the prejudice that people have, the attitudes that they have from not understanding and not knowing. Mainstreaming, I think, could fall right on its face without a good education program to back it up, educating the general public about what the special-needs population is all about.

Some of the things that need to be done that we could use more help on, is the ability to go into the private sector with someone who is not ready for competitive employment but who needs the exposure, who needs the work experience in the private sector to build up his basic work habits and skills. The future is in the private sector. That's where most of the jobs are. But I can't go there right now with the work experience. I can only go into the public sector.

Another thing we need is more vocation----

MS. MARTIN: Are we prepared to say we do that by something in addition to subsidized employment? This is something that we went around with before. How do you get there, I guess, is what I'm asking?

MR. ABRAMOWITZ: We need an incentive for the employers to let our kids in there.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Who are the employers? We'd better let you go through the list.

MR. ABRAMOWITZ: Well, the private sector is real important. We need vocational trainers. We need bus trainers. We need parent trainers. We need people to run the whole gamut of the needs of the special-needs person. We teach someone a skill and they might not be able to get to work. We need someone to bus train them, and I'm speaking mostly of the retarded population. We need parent trainers who understand what we're doing with the person on the job, so they can help them at home in providing for their child's independence. We need advocates in and out of schools to set up the student with agencies that will assist in housing, with dealing with Supplementary Security insurance, dealing with voc rehab, dealing with transportation, dealing with medical, and dealing with getting the person into specialized recreation programs.

The bureaucratic mess, or whatever, that's out there is incredible. If I put someone to work and they're receiving Supplemental Security insurance, if I'm not careful, they will lose it if they earn over a certain amount of money. If they lose their Supplemental Security insurance they lose their medical card, they lose their food stamps, they lose their welfare,$12 a month--whatever it is. Fortunately, we do have a team set up that does deal with these things.

I will be glad to answer any questions. It's real hard to cover all the different things I do. It's a daily thing and to get general is hard.

MR. ICKES: Could I make one quick observation? With all the testimony that you've heard today, can you see a unique system? It's there. It's real abstracted but it's there, and it creates chaos with the bureaucracy, but there is a rational system buried in there, in the Wisconsin experience, and the kinds of experiences that David has communicated to you. The heart of the system is there and it's functionally organized in a way that has no bearing to the bureaucracy at all. That system needs to be pulled together, put in focus.

MS. SHIELDS: The question I have was in terms of your presence in the planning of the individual program, which was something I've been looking for all day in terms of somebody in the real world and the job that this younster is going to be encouraged to look into and so forth. Is that the result of the informal arrangements based really on your personal relationship with the school system, or does that in any way set up a model of cooperation that we could look to?

MR. ABRAMOWITZ: In our original knowledge development program with the ten moderately retarded kids, it set up the types of communications systems that we wanted. I'm just expanding on that now to the point where I have six seniors on my caseload right now for the next year and a half and for the next year they will be in school half a day and working half a day and getting paid for it.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Do you have signed interagency agreements with all these folks?

MR. ABRAMOWITZ: Nothing is signed.

MS. SHIELDS: That's too bad. I thought that was just a terrific part of your program.

MR. ABRAMOWITZ: Maybe it's because it's not signed that we can get together and do these kinds of thing. It doesn't mean it can't be.

MS. MARTIN: Joe Seiler asked whether we believe that every applicant that gets to you through the prime sponsor ought to have a track record of having dealt with the handicapped or disabled people. Do you agree with that? It's a leading question, I know, but I just don't know how you get around it. Private industry is a profit-making enterprise. We have to start with that.

MR. ICKES: I'll say something funny, I guess. If you set your criteria in terms of a track record, you're eliminating 99 percent of your proposals. You don't lock out particular applicants, but in the proposal process you ask them to demonstrate either performance historically or you ask them to demonstrate what specific steps they have taken to become engaged in your process. If that's absent, I wouldn't fund them.

MS. MARTIN: Do you have any suggestions for Youthwork involving private enterprise? I mean, in terms of providing technical assistance, which is one of the things that we said we were going to look for, what are some of the incentives?

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Can I ask my question, because it's all part of the same thing?

I'm wondering where the impediments are in the current OJT mechanism, and voc ed plan mechanisms, the jobs tax credit. Why aren't those tools enough? Can you give me absolute specifics?

MR. ABRAMOWITZ: One of the problems is educating the employers about all the things that are available. It seems the only way things get done is not on peoples' good intentions, and if they don't make a profit----

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: But OJT is another tool for you; is that what you're saying?

MR. ABRAMOWITZ: OJT is a tool for me, if I'm working with a person who has already developed basic work habits and he's into competitive employment and he will learn that specific skill.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Then the corollary to that is that the public sector work site is not sufficient to establish the work habits and work skills that you think are necessary?

MR. ABRAMOWITZ: It is sufficient to establish the work habits. Any job that you go into there are some basic habits that you have to have that will generalize into all jobs and we work on those.

What I'm limited in doing is after a person already has those habits and isn't quite sure what his interests or capabilities are, and I don't know where to provide the opportunity for him to learn that before we really get serious about "This is where you're going to go."

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: This has been a groping issue for Youthwork in the last year, and it is for the Labor Department in policy making. I'm not advocating any of it. I just can't pull out where the real weaknesses are. I'm almost at a loss to know whatever else to recommend to policymakers in Congress and the administration as to where the missing ingredient is with the present level.

MR. ABRAMOWITZ: I think we're able to accomplish that with the OJT. Now, where the problem is, like I said before, it is if we have someone who does not really know what they want to do. I mean, we don't really know what they're capable of doing. We cannot assimilate those kinds of jobs in the public sector. When we're going with an OJT we're getting pretty serious.

MS. MARTIN: What are some other incentives?

MR. ABRAMOWITZ: I think subsidized employment, like on a work experience model, and we also need someone who can go out there and educate the employers about what all of the different acts are, Rehabilitation Act of 1973 with Sections 503 and 504. Let them know what kind of job sites or complications they have to do. Let them know that they are not vocational trainers, that there will be assistance when they hire someone who is disabled. There is the money incentive but that is not enough. You have to follow up with manpower and show them the way, show them some techniques that have been used.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Can a Private Industrial Council do that, Steven?

MR. ICKES: You see, some of these things are theoretical. I mean, I don't know what the PIC is going to become. I think it's going to be different things in different communities.

I think the incentive there is giving the money to the private sector and saying, "Listen, you develop your own thing. What makes sense to you?" There's a real fear on the private sector's part that if they get involved with the government, they get entangled in the kind of things that those of us that just described the alternative system you will get entangled in. The part that terrifies the employer is that he has to justify to the tax people that that employee is an addition to the resources that he had intended to commit in terms of personnel. They are real fearful about getting involved with the IRS and that whole tax issue.

I frankly don't see any way around it unless we go back to what I said before, which is that we take these services and that we put them together in different combinations. If we can do that, and people hear that, we might be able to say to employers, "Listen, you know that the system that we work with is irrational. We have found a way to deal with it," and we sign informal agreements, and sometimes by the power of the personalities of people that are in the particular jobs, we bridge that and transition that whole process. If we redesigned our system to get at the base, I think the private sector would be more interested in it.

MS. HIGGINS: The issue of touching base, I think, is very important, and I think we are grappling with it from a lot of standpoints. The question always comes back to translate that into something specific. Is it making things consistent; is it allowing more flexibility? How do you translate that into public policy?

MR. ICKES: There's a silent revolution going on, which is that in the absence of response, we have created an informal system. Now, the informal system works better than the formal system does. We're going to continue to use the informal system until the formal system changes. What suffers in the process are the people who need the service, because we have to go through all sorts of realignments and gyrations to get to where we need to be.

Now, how do you tell policymakers? That's the scariest part of the whole process, because people talk about terms like turf, and that whole process of protecting their own area, and the Wisconsin people and the gentleman from Massachusetts just said the issue is turf.

I think that what we have to do is to be clear. It may be a bottom-up process, such as the tax-revolt movement, and that is, the professional people simply depend on their informal system until somehow this ghost takes form and people say, "Well, it's right there." That's my whole issue about the base; it's the whole reason for the success of David's activities. There is a system that works. It isn't the system that exists on paper.

MS. HIGGINS: I guess my only point is that I think people recognize that the ghost system exists. The problem is getting that system to make it real and it's just very difficult for public-policy makers to understand the things that they have to do to make that happen. I think everybody would agree that it's very important that it be done, but the dilemma we're facing is translating that into the changes that will make it happen.

MR. ICKES: We have a vehicle. We call it incremental coordination or innovation. And we bite off little pieces and we make people sign cooperative financial and nonfinancial agreements which then become the basis of a new base, maybe.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Let me try it another way. Tell me when I'm not saying what you want me to say, Steve. There are unromantic things that need to be done, common planning, pieces of paper that say the same thing in terms of definition about what it is we're trying to do, a planning process that is a real planning process that involves people that are going to be effective, rewriting legislation, if that's what is needed to make sure that that planning process is open, not having systems that only the federal or state government operate but the third-party contract with a variety of organizations such as Judy's, but it all fits into one holistic thing where we're not cheating with each other in terms of who gets placement, and we don't perpetuate fraud and abuse in terms of placement counts. There are a lot of things and they're not sexy and they're not romantic and not innovative but they're absolutely basic.

MS. MARTIN: It had better be incremental or we will end up with a new system that will be worse.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Did I say anything wrong?

MR. ICKES: That's what I said. Incremental has to be directed at the base. If incremental is not at the base, you're wasting our time.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: We now have two very patient people, Dorothy Dean and Mary McCaffery.

DOROTHY DEAN, PRESIDENT, PARENTS' CAMPAIGN FOR HANDICAPPED CHILDREN AND YOUTH

MS. DEAN: I am head of a small nonprofit service and research organization called The Parents' Campaign for Handicapped Children and Youth. Our organization has a contract with the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, Office of Education, to operate a national information center called Closer Look, for parents of handicapped children. As project director of this center for the past ten years, I have learned a great deal about the needs of handicapped youth.

Now, I believe that to address these needs--what I am about to say to you will repeat what some other people here have said today, but I feel that I must read my laundry list.

I am going to read the list and then I'm going to focus on one of these points very specifically.

The first is the provision of low-cost or free legal services to parents to assist them in carrying out their due-process rights guaranteed under Public Law 94-142, the Vocational Education Act, and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973.

Second, training and education of parents as advocates to equip them to intervene on behalf of their own and other handicapped youth when in conflict with school systems or other agencies.

Third, provision of innovative support services to families with handicapped youth.

Fourth, monitoring of implementation of federal directives that mandate state-level interagency cooperation and agreements between special education, vocational education and vocational rehabilitation.

Fifth, consciousness-raising among traditionally trained vocational educators and administrators to pave the way for handicapped teenagers to be truly integrated into regular vocational education programs.

Sixth, involvement of industry and union leadership in restructuring jobs for trained handicapped youth.

I'd like to tell you just a little bit now about Closer Look. Those of you who have seen our TV spots and heard our radio ads and so forth might want to know that those ads bring our center 1,000 letters every Monday. The challenge of coping with that burden is tremendous. Many of these letters are from desperate parents whose sons and daughters have been rejected by the school system because they're handicapped. For one reason or another, these young people simply don't fit into the classification system. The mental health agency, the school system, rehab agency--all have certain criteria for qualifying for services and many of these people simply don't fit.

Well, what happens to these people who don't fit in? Many of them write to Closer Look, pour out their problem, and they send us testing records, and they tell us desperate, unbelievable stories. The challenge of dealing with it is tremendous. All these young people have the same human needs as the rest of us. They need education. They need training. They need to work. They need a job. They need housing. They need friends, recreation and social life. But what we're dealing with here is the outmoded practice of making a child fit the program instead of making the program fit the child. One giant step toward remedying this was the passage of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act in November of 1975. Since that time administrators and parents and teachers across the country have been struggling to make this law work. One of the law's key provisions,which you heard about earlier today, is the individualized education program, the IEP, which is supposed to be tailored to the needs of the child. According to law, the development of the program shall be based on a thorough and complete evaluation and assessment. When IEPs are written, appropriate vocational services must be included where indicated. Unfortunately, what happens all too often is the IEPs are written on the basis of the services the school system presently has to offer, not on what the evaluation and assessment indicates, and there are many school districts that have no vocational education programs to meet the needs of handicapped youth.

Most public school sytems do have vocational technical high school programs, but the doors to these programs have been very slow to open to handicapped youth,and that ties in with my point about consciousness-raising among traditionally trained vocational educators and administrators. There is a lot of fear and misunderstanding on their part about what handicapped children are like, what they can do, and how would I ever fit one in my program. The law provides that the parents shall sit in and participate. The parents have the option not to sign documents if they disagree with the conclusions and recommendations of the program. If, for example, a parent feels strongly that vocational education or work/study would benefit his child and the individual education plan didn't call for this, there is an appeals process available to the parent. But his chances of winning are very slim. The school system has at its disposal the services of an attorney, which the school system uses to fight the parent. This attorney is paid with the parents' own tax dollars. How ironic; how unfair.

Now, it may cost the school system $3,000 or more to win in a dispute with the parent, but it's still cheaper short term than developing and supplying a good vocational education program for 20 or 30 students. It is not cheaper long range, for we all know the cost to society of depriving handicapped people of the chance to become wage earners themselves.

Now, there is an obscure section of P.L. 94-142 regulations that requires the school system to inform parents of low-cost legal services. This, of course, is a little-known and little-used portion of the law, because in most communities legal services are scarce and have a high price tag, and knowledgeable advocates are hard to find.

As we gain experience trying to make this law work, some unique legal challenges are emerging. Take, for example, the case of the parent who has obtained a favorable decision in the due-process appeals case, but after the favorable decision, the school system still fails to act.

What does one do? This is not a make-believe case. There is more than one case like this. We have been studying the ramifications and the implications of this law. We have been watching how it works in different communities across the country and we've identified certain problems that need to be worked on. These are some of the perplexing situations confronting parents of handicapped teenagers in their battle to equip their children with skills that will make them employable, and I think we must begin soon to change the system that stacks the deck against parents and keeps handicapped youth from obtaining appropriate vocational education services.

I happen to have personal experience in this. I have a son who was mislabled, misplaced, for years, and years, and years. When he was, I think 7, he had an I.Q. test and it was 144. Well, today he's wrapping lettuce. This is what he's doing because he has just not had the right kind of training from place to place. One very good adaptive education program finally enabled him to get his General Educational Development certificate. So, I can identify very strongly with these letters and phone calls we get from desperate parents across the country.

Someone earlier was talking about mainstreaming and some of the problems. What we see are a lot of things in the press that make us think that maybe there is a conspiracy to discredit 504 and 94-142. The groups responsible for providing services are exaggerating the costs of being in compliance. We are very concerned because these groups are powerful. They have access to the writers. They can get to a Neil Peirce, and the impact on public opinion is very strong. In The Post and in The Star in the last few weeks there has been some devastating negative publicity, some gross misrepresentation about what mainstreaming is, and frankly we are concerned.

MR. DELGADO: For the purposes of the record, are you stating that mainstreaming does work?

MS. DEAN: Indeed. Mainstreaming, depending upon the child and the program, can work, and this is the intent to get away from the segregation of children, handicapped children, being educated in segregated settings, and it's absolutely essential, as Judy Heumann said; handicapped children need to be educated with nonhandicapped children insofar as possible. Now, it is so for certain children during a certain period in their education and therapy, whatever. They may have to be in a segregated setting, but there can be a mobility. They can move back and forth. They can be in a classroom and go out for a period to a special-resource room. Some children may still be in need of segregated or residential treatment centers for part of their education, but hopefully they would be able to develop and grow and progress and could come to be educated in the mainstream.

There are people around who are saying mainstreaming is not working. It's really a bad term. It's a misnomer and I think Mary could elaborate as an educator more on that than I can.

MS. MARTIN: Maybe it's the end of the day and I'm getting paranoid, but, again, Joe Seiler's leading question bothered me and I want to, one, ask you what your track record is, and, number two, do you think people have to have a track record in order to be funded in this program, and what ought that track record be?

MS. DEAN: You've touched on a very interesting point, because for many consumer organizations who have good ideas, what they lack is a track record, and the very spiffy, fancy consulting firms who know all the procedures walk away with research contracts, and the consumers are left behind. Often they go to the consumers and they interview them and get their ideas. They go off and incorporate it into a proposal. We have five local affiliates--in Boston, Chicago, Cincinnati, South Bend, and Concord, New Hampshire. Now, those five Parent Information Centers are coalitions of disability groups, parents of blind, deaf, emotionally disturbed, autistic, and so forth. Those coalitions had never had a contract or a grant in their lifetime before they won this first contract to operate the information center, and it was very tough to get the system, the federal government,to agree to do business with a non-profit, volunteer organization in which the board was composed of parents of handicapped children.

So, I would say that I think you have to look at something else besides a track record, and, as Judy was pointing out, that you need disabled adults involved on a board. If you don't have the cooperation of parents, then I don't think the thing can be a success. One of the problems with the failure of programs has been the lack of involvement from consumers in the design process, because if you are going to design something to have an impact on the life of a young person, the parent knows a great deal and that know-how should somehow be incorporated into the program design.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: All I can do is raise a question but I'm not sure what the answer is. Your first observation of the criteria that need to be in any kind of project was low-cost legal services. A bureaucratic question came to my mind whether or not it's even possible, desirable, in the context of CETA, Title IV, Youth Demonstration monies for that to be a part of a package. I think we need to think that through. I don't know what the answer is. I am not in any way, shape or form disagreeing with that. I just don't know whether it could be a part of this, this project.

Let me ask a question on another matter. I'm not sure of the percentages, but at least 10 percent of the funds in any state plan are to be spent for handicapped. I have not heard one positive thing all day long. It is as though they didn't exist. Is it that bad?

MS. DEAN: It is that bad. The problem is, again, lack of information dissemination. A principal of a local school may not know that these funds are available. We arm the parents with information. We say to them, "Look, 10 percent is mandated," and sometimes parents take our newsletter to local school systems. This is the first information that this principal has that there is a set-aside. In some states they let the money go back. There are some states that have simply not taken advantage of funding for vocational education. They have let the money revert back. I think this is a disgrace.

I know the time is late but I have to tell you about a project that we're doing with the Office of Civil Rights. The same pot of money out of which the National Governor's Association training is being funded is what we have, a contract, to train advocates in six cities. We are training 25 advocates in six states and we are trying them in Public Law 94-142,the Vocational Education Act, and Section 504 of the Rehab Act. We are teaching them negotiating skills. We are building their communications skills. We are building a team in each of the cities, and this team can be a takeoff point from which consumers will now be able to have their needs stated and these people can go in and represent a parent at a hearing.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Mary?

MARY McCAFFREY, THE COUNCIL FOR
EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

MS. McCAFFREY: I am from the Council for Exceptional Children, which is a professional organization with 65,000 members. We're suffering what other organizations suffer. Approximately 60 percent of our membership is teachers. We have a formally adopted policy that supports the major thrust toward the education and training needs of handicapped youth, which include career education, vocational education, special education, and rehabilitation when needed for exceptional students. Under our definition of exceptional we would include all of the handicapped categories that are included in 94-142 as well as handicapped and gifted students, but I will just be concerned with handicapped students here.

A related objective of our policy is to reduce the needs for programs specifically designed to assist the exceptional students in making the transition from school to work. Unfortunately, in-school programs do not adequately design programs to ease that transition. I think I can safely say that the majority of teachers have not received training on a pre-service or in-service level to deal with employment needs of students. Many of the obstacles that we identified in preparation of this statement are some that have been stated here today and I just will briefly go over those just to reaffirm our position of those.

One, of course, is the issue of stereotyping and the attitude of employers, parents and students. Exemplary programs should be encouraged that seek to reduce the stereotyping. In particular, handicapped students are not always aware of positive role models. We would encourage you to include successful handicapped workers as staff in the role of coordinators, teachers, counselors or resource persons. That would do much to assist handicapped youth themselves.

The issue of skill development--we feel very strongly that assessment devices used are not always adapted for the handicapped. We don't think that new assessment devices necessarily have to be created. There's a lot that are around but when they are not adapted for the handicapped, and placements are made on the basis of questionable assessments, the youth become additionally handicapped. We feel very strongly about the whole issue of programs design based and, in particular, these skills that should be developed as a result must be skills that are marketable.

One basic deterrent is a lack of current information about varying work experiences that may be available in a different community. Many handicapped students lack information about work realities as well as their own performance ability and interests in relation to work. Exemplary programs are needed that continue to concentrate on the development of career information, guidance and job-seeking skills.

Unfortunately, the transition from school is often hampered by teachers, administrators and coordinators who should be primarily responsible for the design and maintenance of appropriate programs. Appropriate educators, coordinators and representatives from the business and labor community require training in the design and operation of instructional programs that will benefit the employment needs of handicapped students. Exemplary programs should therefore include an in-service component for appropriate professionals or paraprofessionals on the design and implementation of various career-development approaches based on individual needs of handicapped students.

In response to the question that has been brought up over and over again as to who the service provider should be, we think that the program should be based on individual community need. This may or may not mean that there has been a proven track record. I think that you really have to look at the respondent's ability to assess those needs and to really consider ways in which there will be some continuation of effort after the program money runs out. I think that that can be shown in an RFP.

We also have found in our experience as a professional organization that local efforts--efforts that come from grassroots involvement--are fantastic, and that isn't always well documented. A lot of the good programs really are dependent on personalities and ability of people to work with each other. I think that if some effort could be made to document that and to get that information out, organizations such as ours and such as the one that Dorothy represents are in positions to do that. We can disseminate information. We can play on those professional qualities that teachers and administrators and parents have to really get out there and start their own programs.

One area that hasn't been mentioned, at least since I've been here, is the issue of eligibility. It's our understanding that in-school demonstration programs should serve low-income youth, aged 14 to 21, who are working toward a high school diploma or a General Educational Development certificate. We would request that you reconsider the income eligibility requirement for this population, already once disadvantaged because of a handicap. To seek only youth who are both economically disadvantaged and handicapped could greatly reduce the number of youth who could be served in a given community.

Assuming that a student's program is linked to the objectives of increasing the job potential and career opportunities for eligible handicapped youth, actual work experience, job counseling, career information, and job restructuring should take place in the least restrictive environment possible. Moreover, the student's individualized program should be seen as a management tool toward achievement of the least restrictive environment within a framework of meeting the unique needs of each individual. Although there exists a continuum of services from least to most restrictive, programs should be sought that move closer to the least restrictive end of that spectrum.

In conclusion, as far as specific things that we would like to see Youthwork include in the development of their programs, we should suggest to you that programs, number one, be accessible to a wide array of handicapped students. Also, that you make an effort to select programs that include handicapped individuals on staff or on appropriate governing bodies, board of directors, and so forth.

Finally, we would suggest that of the number of programs that you do select that you have a couple that really look at the severely handicapped population. So often we get into developing programs that are for that middle-level group.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Jose Santana.

MR. SANTANA: This is directed at both of you. First of all, which subgroup is the least served, and, second, when talking about severely handicapped, what exactly are we talking about?

MS. McCAFFREY: We may have different answers on that. I would go back to that avoidance of categorical areas and really look at community needs, individual needs and try to set up demonstration programs that can do that, that can find the people within a community who are severely handicapped, and by that I guess I would have to say those who cannot function, who are dependent, who are really not independent, and that who are looking at a life span where they would continually be dependent unless given some assistance. There are many individuals that can become independent with appropriate programs.

I don't have the data as to the least served or the most served, but I would really focus on that individual need of a community and building programs that can kind of determine where those people are and what they need.

MS. DEAN: As much as I dislike labeling by category, unfortunately that's how the law was written. The reality is that the labeling system still has some usefulness in terms of, for example, providing reading material for parents. If a parent writes that they have a cerebral palsy child, of course we have a reading list. We read books and we write annotations, so the labeling system still has some usefulness, not in prescribing an educational program, but I would say that from our experience, having heard from several hundreds of thousands of parents over a ten-year period, the group that seems to be the least well served is the so-called mentally ill, seriously emotionally disturbed child. The behaviorally disordered child is someone that school systems don't know how to deal with, for the most part. The educational technology for dealing with these kids is still very rough. Many of them, most of them, are still educated largely in private programs, but principals still when they have a kid who's acting out, feel free to call the parent and say, "Come here in half an hour and pick up this child," and dumps the problem right back into the parent's lap.

One of the distressing practices that school systems are now engaging in with respect to children who are labeled emotionally disturbed is the related services portion. If the individual educational plan is written for this child and there is a requirement for supportive related services and one of these services is the psychological services, the school system takes the route of saying, "Those psychological services are medical, psychiatric; therefore, it is not our responsibility to provide the supportive services for the child."

I would say that the mentally ill, emotionally disturbed child is the one who is least well served, because he simply is an unattractive person to deal with and people don't know how to cope with the problems.

With respect to the severity of the handicap, I would say the severely, profoundly handicapped have been ignored and left out, and the opportunities for them need to be there. Part of what we are doing in our training section is dealing with how you train and educate and advocate on behalf of the severely, profoundly handicapped.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Physically or mentally?

MS. DEAN: Physically, emotionally and mentally--all three.

MS. MOSLEY: Mary, your program is sort of made up mostly of teachers.

MS. McCAFFREY: About 60 percent.

MS. MOSLEY: Are these teachers all special-education teachers or are there other teachers also?

MS. McCAFFREY: No, the majority would be special education.

MS. MOSLEY: Do you do anything with teachers who have not been trained in special-education programs? Are you trying to advocate that they get some training to be able to work in the classroom?

MS. McCAFFREY: Yes. We are in the process of preparing more materials, doing more kinds of identification of what types of programs are taking place around the country for regular-education teachers who are having to deal with handicapped children, what their needs are, what kind of training materials. We're trying to develop a process whereby it could be replicated on the state and local levels, as well as document appropriate training practices and materials.

MS. DEAN: The law requires that state education agencies conduct in-service training programs for regular-education teachers. No one is monitoring the activities of state education departments. Our local Parent Information Center in Concord, New Hampshire, is going out, and parents, mind you--consumers--are training the teachers, because the system hasn't done it. I think we need some monitoring of training programs in school districts around the country to find out if in fact, these in-service training programs are being conducted and, if so, what their nature is. This is just not going on. It is so poorly dealt with. Monitoring of state education agencies is a primary thing that could be attached. We could collect a lot of data in a short length of time, just to learn about where are the problems.

MS. McCAFFREY: One other thing on that point is that we do a lot of training ourselves of teachers and administrators, and every year it seems that there are still groups that come back and want training on what the law is, and what handicapped children are, and it seems like we're just treading water as far as bringing the word to the people. There are still those basic questions that haven't been answered, and even in the more sophisticated programs, the employment issues, the career development issues, are not being dealt with.

MS. MARTIN: One of the big problems with mainstreaming is the parents of nonhandicapped youngsters. Should Youthwork be concerned with maybe one project that would try to reach out and involve the parents of "regular" kids in terms of attitudes and changes, etc?

MS. DEAN: Absolutely. It is very important for parents of so-called normal children to understand what is going to happen to their child if there are handicapped children in the classroom. It's a very important project and I think it will be well worth the effort that you put into it.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: Bob Herman this morning observed that no bureaucrat likes to give money back to the federal government. Every year there is insufficient number of universities that make application for in-service training. I don't understand why. What is the problem? Bob made an offer to collaborate with Youthwork in developing an in-service training program. How would you approach that task?

MS. McCAFFREY: The reason universities don't apply for money is, I think, basically that they see in-service training as a threat. It doesn't have to be. It could be a fantastic market for them, if they figured out ways where they could work with local education agencies and set up in-service training so the teachers could get college credits. I think if you looked at that in-service approach and tried to involved the local university, it would be to your benefit. Teachers going through in-service programs can always get professional development from their local education agency, but it's even more attractive if they can get college or university credit on top of it, a dual type of credit, and it helps the pre-service programs that are being developed. They would certainly have a better reality base. If you could look at that type of collaboration when you set up some of the requirements or possibilities that could deal with collaboration, then I think it needs to deal with in-service collaboration for a number of groups, not just school professionals but some of the other people that would be involved as well.

MS. DEAN: The question about applying for funds: Many chairmen of special-education departments in institutions of higher education are in a rut. They have been training teachers of the educable mentally retarded for years. They have a professional investment in marketable skills that they know how to deliver, and they are isolated in their ivory towers. But I would say that the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped can have an impact on this. They give grants to these institutions, and their guidelines could be one way they could shape, and in fact are shaping, perceptions. Changing the attitude of university professors in this particular discipline is long in coming, and I think it's something that Youthwork might be able to have an impact on.

CHAIRPERSON WILLS: One quick comment, Mary. I have been fascinated. My background is basically on the labor side. Bob Taggart, when he was here this morning, spoke on the issue of the income targeting for CETA, and whether or not that's what we need to perpetuate, particularly as it related to servicing the handicapped. You are the first person this entire day that has raised this as a problem. I find it fascinating.

Now, let me also go back to saying two things. One, I don't believe that Youthwork, because it is written into law, must do income targeting. However, it's something that I think we are aware of in Youthwork and we really need to take a hard look at, particularly as it related to servicing the handicapped. It is a broader question as it relates to how you develop programs between the educational system with its universal mandates, responsibility, and CETA with its other sets of mission. So, I don't think we'll be able to be in total compliance with your request, but I just was so fascinated, because I thought a lot of people would bring that up as a problem today and you're the first.

Thank you both very much. I'm sorry it was so late. We had to squeeze a lot into one day. I hope that the other panel members, even though you may be weary of sitting, feel as I do, as though we have learned a great deal. We really did come here with lots of questions and don't know the answers. I think maybe that's progress when we all sit down and say we don't know the answers.

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